



AUSTRALIAN SOCIAL TRENDS 1997



Australian Social Trends 1997

W. McLennan
Australian Statistician

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The Australian Bureau of Statistics has catalogued this publication as follows:

Australian social trends / Australian Bureau of Statistics. — 1994- . — Canberra : Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1994- . — v. : ill.; 30 cm.

Annual

Catalogue no. 4102.0

ISSN: 1321-1781

1. Social indicators — Australia — Statistics — Periodicals.
2. Australia — Social conditions — Statistics — Periodicals.
1. Australian Bureau of Statistics.

319.4

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Preface

Australian Social Trends 1997 is the fourth of an annual series designed to assist and encourage informed decision-making, research and discussion within government and the community through presenting information on how social conditions in Australia are changing over time.

Australian Social Trends is a key statistical source book providing summary information on the diversity of socio-economic data available from the ABS and other official sources. The information presented in the 33 reviews has been selected and organised by major areas of social concern. Some, including chapters on population, family, health, education, work, income and expenditure, and housing, have appeared in every issue, others such as culture and leisure appear at infrequent intervals because there is not sufficient regularly available statistical data to report on these areas each year. This year's edition extends the picture of social well-being by including a chapter on crime and justice for the first time.

As well as the reviews, *Australian Social Trends* also includes summary tables for each area of social concern illustrating the changes that have taken place over the last decade. Differences in the socio-economic circumstances of State and Territory populations are presented as well. This all round coverage is further enhanced through the inclusion of tables providing international comparisons.

Many people have contributed to the preparation of this publication. I wish to acknowledge the external contributions of Mike Giles, Gordon Carmichael, the Department of Social Security, the Department of Health and Family Services, the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, the National Centre in HIV Epidemiology and Clinical Research, the Australian Taxation Office, AusAJD and the Industry Commission.

The ABS welcomes feedback from readers. Should you wish to contribute, the Director, Social Analysis and Reporting, at the address given below, would be pleased to hear from you.

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June 1997

General information

Symbols and usages

The following symbols and usages mean:

billion	1 000 million
n.a.	not available
n.y.a.	not yet available
p	preliminary — figures or series subject to revision
r	figures or series revised since previous edition
—	nil or rounded to zero
..	not applicable
*	subject to high sampling variability
**	data suppressed due to unacceptably high sampling variability

Where figures have been rounded, discrepancies may occur between the sums of the component items and totals.

Inquiries about these statistics

General inquiries about the content and interpretation of statistics in this publication should be addressed to:

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Inquiries about the availability of more recent data from ABS should be directed to Information Services in your nearest ABS office (see p. 202).

ABS publications and services

A complete list of ABS publications produced in Canberra and each of the State Offices is contained in the *ABS Catalogue of Publications and Products* (Cat. no. 1101.0) which is available from any ABS office.

In many cases, the ABS can also provide information which is not published or which is historical or compiled from a variety of published and unpublished sources. Information of this kind may be obtained through the Information Consultancy Service. This information may be made available in one or more of the following forms: consultancy reports, microfiche, floppy disk, magnetic tape, computer printout or photocopy. Charges are generally made for such information. Inquiries may be made by contacting Information Services in your nearest ABS office (see p. 202).

Abbreviations

The following abbreviations have been used in graphics and tables throughout this publication.

Australia, States and Territories of Australia

Aust.	Australia
NSW	New South Wales
Vic.	Victoria
Qld	Queensland
SA	South Australia
WA	Western Australia
Tas.	Tasmania
NT	Northern Territory
ACT	Australian Capital Territory

Other abbreviations

MESC	Main English speaking countries — United Kingdom, Ireland, Canada, United States of America, South Africa, New Zealand, Australia
NESC	Non-English speaking countries — all countries other than English speaking countries
NZ	New Zealand
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PNG	Papua New Guinea
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USA	United States of America
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
WHO	World Health Organisation

Population

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POPULATION GROWTH

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In 1994, Australia's share of the world's population was 0.3%. In contrast, the United Kingdom had about 1% of the world's population, the United States of America about 5%, and China 21%.

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In 1995, Australia's 4.6 million children aged under 18 made up 26% of the total population. This represents a fall from 36% in 1925. By the year 2025 it is projected that the proportion will drop further, to 21%.

POPULATION COMPOSITION

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While the majority of Australia's overseas-born population have come from the United Kingdom and other European countries, the Asian-born are a rapidly growing segment.

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Australia's permanent migration links with Europe and the United Kingdom are not as strong as they were in the past. However, the numbers of short-term visitors to and from Europe have been rising.

Population — national summary

COMPOSITION	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994(a)	1995(a)	1996(a)
Total population	'000	16 018	16 264	16 532	16 814	17 065	17 284	17 489	17 656	17 838	18 049	p18 289
Male population	'000	8 000	8 118	8 249	8 388	8 511	8 615	8 715	8 796	8 885	8 989	p9 105
Female population	'000	8 018	8 146	8 283	8 427	8 554	8 669	8 774	8 861	8 954	9 060	p9 185
Median age	years	31.1	31.3	31.6	31.8	32.1	32.4	32.7	33.0	33.4	33.7	p34.0
Proportion of population aged 0-14	%	23.1	22.7	22.4	22.2	22.0	21.9	21.8	21.7	21.5	21.4	p21.2
Proportion of population aged 65 and over	%	10.5	10.7	10.8	11.0	11.1	11.3	11.5	11.7	11.8	11.9	p12.1
Overseas born (of population)	%	21.2	21.5	22.0	22.4	22.8	22.9	23.0	22.8	22.8	22.8	p23.0
Born in non-English speaking countries (of population)	%	11.8	12.1	12.4	12.8	13.1	13.3	13.5	13.5	13.6	13.7	p13.9
Living in capital cities (of population)	%	63.8	63.9	63.9	63.8	63.7	63.6	63.5	63.3	63.2	63.2	p63.1
GROWTH	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994(a)	1995(a)	1996(a)
Growth rate	%	1.46	1.53	1.65	1.71	1.49	1.28	1.19	0.96	1.03	1.18	p1.33
Net overseas migration rate	%	0.64	0.78	0.92	0.95	0.74	0.51	0.40	0.17	0.26	0.45	p0.63
Rate of natural increase	%	0.78	0.79	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.83	0.79	0.78	0.75	0.73	p0.70
Net reproduction rate	no.	0.90	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.91	0.89	0.91	0.90	0.88	0.9	n.y.a.
Crude birth rate * (per 1,000 population)	no.	15.2	15.0	14.9	14.9	15.4	14.9	15.1	14.7	14.5	14.2	n.y.a.
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.4	7.0	6.9	7.1	6.9	7.1	6.9	n.y.a.
Permanent and long-term arrivals	'000	186.4	204.5	242.3	249.9	231.9	236.4	234.2	203.8	207.4	238.5	262.7
Humanitarian settler arrivals	'000	11.8	11.1	11.1	10.9	11.9	7.7	7.2	10.9	11.4	13.6	13.8
Permanent and long-term departures	'000	92.5	95.3	99.0	112.6	128.1	141.6	144.3	141.1	140.0	145.5	153.1
PROJECTIONS — SERIES A	Units	2001	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026	2031	2036	2041	2046	2051
Total population	'000	19 372	20 343	21 237	22 073	22 864	23 601	24 258	24 821	25 293	25 702	26 074
Male population	'000	9 636	10 113	10 547	10 948	11 322	11 664	11 962	12 214	12 427	12 616	12 794
Female population	'000	9 736	10 230	10 690	11 125	11 542	11 937	12 296	12 606	12 866	13 086	13 280
Median age	years	35.3	36.6	38.0	39.1	39.8	40.6	41.2	41.7	42.1	42.4	42.6
Proportion of population aged 0-14	%	20.6	19.9	19.2	18.5	18.0	17.7	17.5	17.3	17.1	16.9	16.8
Proportion of population aged 65 and over	%	12.3	12.9	14.0	15.9	17.5	19.3	20.7	21.8	22.6	22.9	23.1
5-year average growth rate	%	1.18	1.00	0.88	0.79	0.72	0.64	0.56	0.46	0.38	0.32	0.29

(a) Includes Christmas and Cocos Islands.

Reference periods:

Population estimates and projections are at 30 June. Population growth figures (except birth, death and net reproduction rates) are for the year ended 30 June.

Population — State summary



COMPOSITION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total population	'000	1996p	6 190	4 541	3 355	1 479	1 763	473	178	308	18 289
Male population	'000	1996p	3 074	2 247	1 682	734	885	235	91	155	9 105
Female population	'000	1996p	3 117	2 294	1 673	745	878	239	87	152	9 185
Median age	years	1996p	33.4	33.2	32.3	34.5	32.2	33.6	27.5	29.9	34.0
Proportion of population aged 0-14	%	1996p	21.0	20.7	21.8	20.3	22.1	22.1	27.6	21.5	21.2
Proportion of population aged 65 and over	%	1996p	12.6	12.4	11.4	13.9	10.5	12.8	3.4	7.2	12.1
Overseas born (of population)	%	1991	23.1	24.4	16.8	22.5	29.3	10.7	18.1	23.6	22.9
Born in non-English speaking countries (of population)	%	1991	15.2	16.9	6.9	10.8	12.0	4.0	9.3	14.1	13.3
Living in capital city (of population)	%	1996p	61.7	71.5	45.5	73.5	72.8	41.2	45.5	99.9	63.1

GROWTH	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Growth rate	%	1995-96p	1.28	0.89	2.37	0.37	1.82	0.08	2.10	1.13	1.33
Net overseas migration rate	%	1995-96p	0.85	0.63	0.44	0.28	0.78	0.11	0.37	0.21	0.63
Net interstate migration rate	%	1995-96p	0.26	0.36	1.14	0.42	0.22	0.58	0.07	0.15	..
Rate of natural increase	%	1995-96p	0.68	0.63	0.78	0.52	0.82	0.55	1.66	1.07	0.70
Net reproduction rate	no.	1995	0.90	0.85	0.87	0.84	0.89	0.92	1.13	0.80	0.88
Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	1995	14.4	13.9	14.2	13.1	14.5	13.9	21.7	14.5	14.2
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	1995	7.3	7.2	6.3	7.6	6.0	7.9	4.7	3.7	6.9
Permanent and long-term overseas arrivals	'000	1995-96	110.2	61.0	39.2	11.4	30.1	2.3	2.1	6.4	262.7
Humanitarian settler arrivals	'000	1995-96	5.8	4.4	0.9	0.8	1.6	0.1	0.0	0.1	13.8
Interstate arrivals	'000	1995-96	87.9	57.1	113.5	25.9	33.2	10.6	18.9	19.0	..
Permanent and long-term departures	'000	1995-96	60.2	33.8	25.4	7.5	17.1	1.8	1.5	5.8	153.1
Interstate departures	'000	1995-96	103.5	73.4	76.0	32.1	29.4	13.3	18.7	19.5	..

PROJECTIONS — SERIES A	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total population	'000	2051	8466	5244	6438	1607	3091	446	295	485	26074
Male population	'000	2051	4142	2550	3187	786	1520	219	148	241	12794
Female population	'000	2051	4324	2694	3251	821	1571	226	147	244	13280
Median age	years	2051	42.3	43.9	42.3	45.1	41.6	48.0	34.8	40.2	42.6
Proportion of population aged 0-14	%	2051	17.2	16.0	17.0	15.5	17.3	15.3	21.7	16.7	16.8
Proportion of population aged 65 and over	%	2051	22.9	24.5	22.5	25.7	21.9	28.7	14.7	20.4	23.1

Reference periods:

Population estimates (except overseas born and born in non-English speaking countries which are Census based) and projections are for 30 June.

Population — definitions and references

Crude birth rate — number of live births registered during the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year. For years prior to 1994, it is based on the mean estimated resident population for the calendar year.

Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).

Crude death rate — number of deaths registered during the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year. For years prior to 1994, it is based on the mean estimated resident population for the calendar year.

Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).

Growth rate — change in the population during the year expressed as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).

Humanitarian settler arrivals — comprises: those who arrive under the refugee program (which provides protection for people who have fled their country because of persecution); those who arrive under the humanitarian programs (those who leave their country because of significant discrimination amounting to gross violation of human rights); and those who arrive under the special assistance category (groups determined by the minister to be of special concern to Australia and in real need but who do not come under the traditional humanitarian categories. It includes those externally displaced people who have close family links with Australia).

Reference: Bureau of Immigration and Population Research, *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics*.

Interstate arrivals — arrivals from other States or Territories of Australia who intend to stay permanently.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).

Interstate departures — permanent departures to other States or Territories of Australia.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).

Long-term arrivals — visitors arriving from overseas who intend to stay in Australia for one year or more and Australian residents returning from an overseas visit of one year or more.

Reference: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (Cat. no. 3401.0).

Long-term departures — departures of Australian residents who intend to stay temporarily overseas for one year or more and departures of visitors who had stayed in Australia for one year or more.

Reference: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (Cat. no. 3401.0).

Median age — the age at which half the population is older and half is younger.

Reference: *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age, States and Territories of Australia* (Cat. no. 3201.0).

Net interstate migration rate — interstate arrivals minus interstate departures during the year, expressed as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).

Net overseas migration rate — permanent and long-term arrivals (including refugees) minus permanent and long-term departures during the year expressed as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).

Net reproduction rate — the number of daughters that a group newborn girls would bear during their lifetime, if the age-specific birth and death rates recorded in the year of their birth continue.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).

Non-English speaking countries — all overseas countries except United Kingdom, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, Canada and the United States of America.

Reference: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0).

Permanent arrivals — persons arriving from overseas with the intention of settling permanently in Australia. It includes those with migrant visas (regardless of stated intended period of stay), New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle, and those who are otherwise eligible to settle, e.g. overseas-born children of Australian citizens.

Reference: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (Cat. no. 3401.0).

Permanent departures — Australian residents, including former settlers, who on departure state that they do not intend to return to Australia.

Reference: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (Cat. no. 3401.0).

Population projections — the ABS population projections take the base year population for each sex by single years of age and advance it year by year by applying assumptions about future mortality and migration. Assumed age-specific fertility rates are applied to the female populations of child-bearing ages to provide the estimates of new births for each year. This procedure is repeated for each year in the projection period for each State and Territory and for Australia. The ABS produces several series of population projections based on different combinations of assumptions about mortality, fertility and migration. The assumptions underlying Series A most closely reflect prevailing trends and comprise: declining rates of mortality; a constant level of fertility (total fertility rate of 1.88 for Australia); low levels of overseas migration (rising to 70,000 per year by the year 2000 then remaining constant); and continuing high levels of interstate migration.

Reference: *Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories, 1993 to 2041* (Cat. no. 3222.0).

Rate of natural increase — the excess of births over deaths during the year expressed as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).

International population comparison

POPULATION GROWTH

In 1994, Australia's share of the world's population was 0.3%. In comparison, the United Kingdom had about 1%, the United States of America about 5% and China 21%.

Australia's population size is small in world terms. In 1994, Australia's share of the world population was 0.3%. In comparison, the United Kingdom had about 1%, the United States of America about 5% and China 21%. This review compares population growth rates in Australia with those in other countries of the world.

Population growth in different countries has been shaped by their patterns of fertility, mortality and migration. These in turn reflect the wealth of their countries' natural resources, their wars and famines, and most

Growth and migration

Average annual growth rate is the annual rate of population growth averaged over a given period.

Net overseas migration consists of permanent and long-term arrivals (immigration) less permanent and long-term departures (emigration).

Selected countries

The countries selected for this review include: other countries in our region; major trading partners; countries with historical and/or migratory ties to Australia; countries of a similar size and economic development; and countries who have an impact on trends in Australia due to their population size and/or economic power. The countries selected in this review represent only a sample of the countries that could be identified from these criteria. Two countries from Africa have also been included with the less developed countries for further points of comparison. Taken together African countries have population growth rates higher than that observed in other regions of the world.

Estimated population, selected countries

Selected countries	June 1990	June 1994	Annual average growth rate 1990-94
	millions	millions	%
Countries from more developed regions			
Australia	17.1	17.8	1.1
Canada	26.6	29.2	2.4
France	56.7	57.7	0.4
Greece	10.2	10.4	0.6
Italy	57.7	57.2	-0.2
Japan	123.5	125.0	0.3
New Zealand	3.4	3.5	1.0
Sweden	8.6	8.8	0.6
UK	57.6	58.1	0.2
USA	249.9	260.7	1.1
Countries from less developed regions			
China	1 155.3	1 208.8	1.1
Indonesia	179.8	192.2	1.7
Hong Kong	5.7	6.1	1.5
Korea, Republic of	42.9	44.5	0.9
Malaysia	17.8	19.5	2.3
Papua New Guinea	3.7	4.0	1.9
Singapore	2.7	2.9	2.0
Uganda	17.9	20.6	3.5
Viet Nam	66.2	72.5	2.3
Zimbabwe	9.4	11.2	4.4
World total	5 285.0	5 630.0	1.6

Source: United Nations, *Demographic Yearbook* 1994.

importantly, their patterns of social and economic development.

In general, countries from more developed regions have lower birth and death rates than those from less developed regions. As a consequence, countries from more developed regions have a lower proportion of young people, and a higher proportion of older people, compared to countries from less developed regions. This in turn affects their future prospects for growth, because their populations contain a relatively low proportion of women of child-bearing age. On the other hand, the higher level of fertility and more youthful age structure of countries from less developed regions, ensures that an increasing share of the world's population will be located in the less developed regions of the world.

Recent growth

In the period 1990-94, Australia's average annual rate of population growth, at 1.1%, was lower than the world population growth rate of 1.6%. However, Australia along with Canada (2.4%), the United States of America (1.1%) and New Zealand (1.0%), experienced

high growth, relative to other countries from more developed regions. For example, the population of the United Kingdom grew at an average annual rate of 0.2%, Japan's population remained fairly steady, and Italy's population declined by an average of 0.2% a year. The higher population growth in Australia, Canada, and the United States of America is due to their younger age structure and high levels of immigration.

Countries categorised by the United Nations as being from less developed regions experienced a higher average annual rate of population growth. Most of Australia's neighbouring countries in Southeast Asia and Oceania fall into this category. Australia's rate of growth was considerably lower than that of Malaysia (2.3%), Viet Nam (2.3%), Indonesia (1.7%) and Papua New Guinea (1.9%).

Age structures

The age structure of a country, like its population, is dependent upon past fertility, mortality and migration patterns. Because these components vary considerably from country to country, the age structure also differs between countries.

The median age of Australia's population in 1995, at 34 years, was similar to that of the United States of America, Canada, and Hong Kong. New Zealand and Singapore had slightly younger populations, while the United Kingdom and France had slightly older populations.

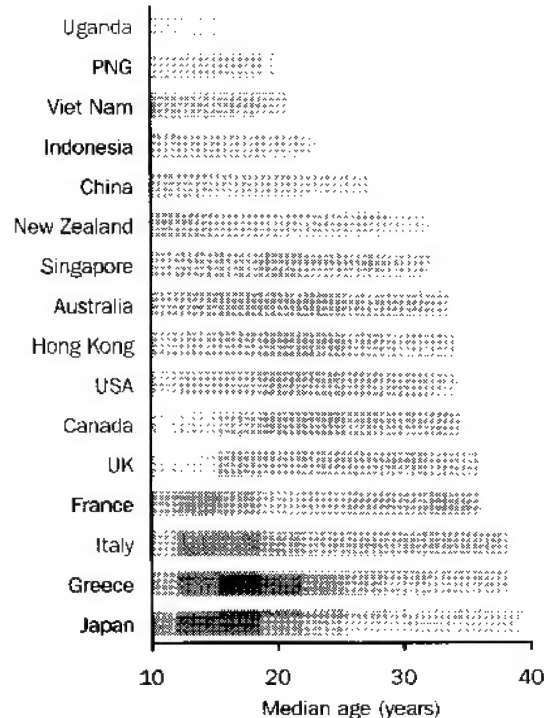
In 1995, the populations of Australia's immediate neighbours to the north, Indonesia and Papua New Guinea, had much younger age profiles than that of Australia, as a consequence of higher birth rates and higher death rates. In Indonesia, 33% of the population were aged 0–14 years, and only 4% were aged 65 and over, while in Papua New Guinea the proportions were 40% and 3% respectively.

Future growth

World population growth is projected to fall to an average of 1.5% a year between 1995 and 2000. The decline is projected to continue beyond the year 2000, averaging 0.7% a year during the period 2020–50.

The population of the less developed regions is expected to increase by 90% between 1995 and 2050, while that of the more developed regions is expected to increase by only 4%. Between 2020 and 2050, the population of

Median age, selected countries, 1995



Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects: The 1994 Revision*.

the less developed regions is projected to grow by an average of 0.9% each year, while the population of the more developed regions is projected to decline by 0.1% (on average each year).

Between 2020 and 2050, positive average annual growth rates have been projected for Australia, New Zealand, the United States of America and Canada. The projected growth in these countries relates to an expectation of continuing positive net overseas migration and the younger age of the current population in these countries. In contrast,

United Nations' classification of world development regions

For the purpose of analysis, the United Nations aggregates countries into two development groups: more developed regions; and less developed regions.

More developed regions comprise Northern America, Japan, Europe, Australia and New Zealand.

Less developed regions comprise all regions of Africa, Asia (excluding Japan), Latin America and the Caribbean, and Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand).

Population projections (a), selected countries

Selected countries	Population			Average annual growth rate		
	2000	2020	2050	1995-2000	2000-20	2020-50
	millions	millions	millions	%	%	%
Countries from more developed regions	1 185.5	1 232.0	1 207.5	0.3	0.2	-0.1
Australia	19.2	23.6	26.1	1.2	1.0	0.3
Canada	31.0	36.9	39.9	1.0	0.9	0.3
France	59.0	60.9	60.5	0.4	0.2	0.0
Greece	10.6	10.1	8.6	0.2	-0.2	-0.5
Italy	57.3	53.6	43.6	0.0	-0.3	-0.7
Japan	126.5	124.0	110.0	0.2	-0.1	-0.4
New Zealand	3.8	4.3	4.7	1.0	0.6	0.3
Sweden	9.0	9.6	10.0	0.4	0.3	0.1
UK	59.0	60.9	61.6	0.3	0.2	0.0
USA	275.1	320.6	349.0	0.9	0.8	0.3
Countries from less developed regions	4 972.5	6 655.9	8 625.7	1.8	1.5	0.9
China	1 284.6	1 488.1	1 606.0	1.0	0.7	0.3
Hong Kong	6.0	6.0	4.9	0.3	0.0	-0.6
Indonesia	212.7	264.1	318.8	1.5	1.1	0.6
Korea, Republic of	47.1	53.3	56.5	0.9	0.6	0.2
Malaysia	22.3	29.8	38.1	2.1	1.5	0.8
Papua New Guinea	4.8	7.0	9.6	2.3	1.9	1.0
Singapore	3.0	3.3	3.3	0.8	0.5	0.0
Uganda	24.6	42.4	72.1	2.9	2.8	1.8
Viet Nam	82.6	111.7	143.6	2.1	1.5	0.8
Zimbabwe	12.5	18.3	26.6	2.1	1.9	1.3
World	6 158.1	7 887.9	9 833.2	1.5	1.2	0.7

(a) Medium-variant projection.

Source: United Nations, *World Population Prospects: The 1994 Revision*.

populations of Italy, Greece, and Japan are projected to decrease in size.

The populations of countries from the less developed regions are projected to continue increasing but with gradually declining average annual growth rates. Between 2000 and 2050, the population of Papua New

Guinea is projected to double in size while those of Viet Nam, Malaysia and Indonesia are projected to increase by at least half. China's population is projected to reach 1.6 billion by 2050, but its share of the world population is projected to decrease to 16%.

Australia's child population

POPULATION GROWTH

In 1995, Australia's 4.6 million children aged under 18 made up 26% of the total population.

Children have a range of developmental needs which vary with their physical and mental capacities as they grow older and prepare for adulthood. Families provide the nest for child development but families are also supported by governments, businesses and various community groups in providing services for children. As well as health services, child-care centres and schools, children have needs for places where they can develop through play, sport and other forms of recreation and learning.

As with other groups of people with special needs (e.g. people with disabilities, the frail and the aged) an understanding of trends in the growth in numbers of children at the national level as well as those in particular localities underpins the ability to plan for the provision of services. Past trends offer insights into the future.

The increasing number of children

The number of children in Australia more than doubled between 1925 and 1995, from 2.2 million to 4.6 million. Most of the growth occurred after World War II, from the late 1940s, through the 1950s, and to a lesser extent through the 1960s. The growth over this period started with the post-war baby boom, which has been attributed to the rapid increase in the proportion of people marrying and having children. At the same time, high levels of immigration brought additional children and young couples of child-bearing age to Australia (see *Australian Social Trends*

Children

In this review children are defined as people aged under 18. As such they include infants, adolescents and young people approaching adulthood. Age categories shown in the tables (i.e. 0-4, 5-11 and 12-17) correspond to ages associated with different levels of schooling, namely: pre-primary, primary and secondary school.

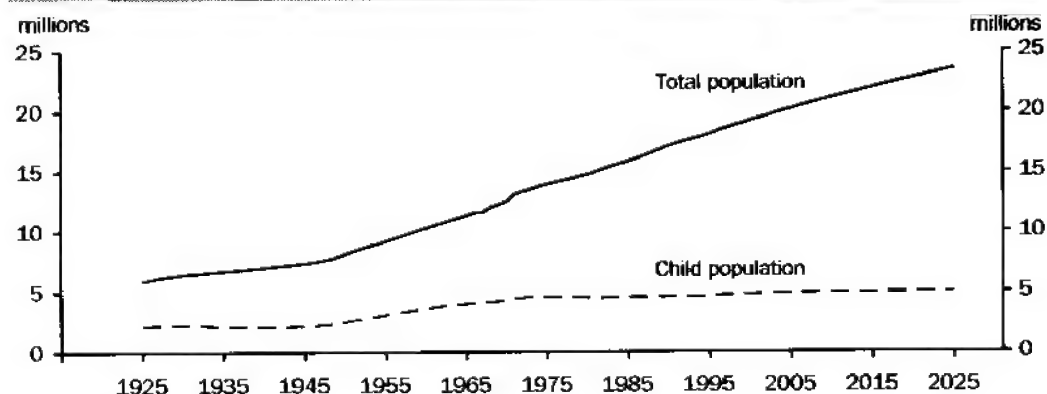
While it is difficult to define when childhood ends and adulthood begins, adulthood implies the adoption of various rights and responsibilities, some of which are legally defined in terms of age. Examples include, the right to marry without consent, the right to vote, and to purchase alcoholic drinks in shops and bars. A person's 18th birthday, at which many of these rights are conferred, has been selected to define the end of childhood as it also approximates the age at which most children in the 1990s are completing their secondary education. In 1995, 72% of secondary students were staying on to Year 12 compared to 46% in 1985 (see Education — national summary table, p. 66).

The *total fertility rate* is the number of babies a woman could expect to have in her lifetime given the fertility patterns prevailing at the time.

1996, Australia's population growth, pp. 17-22).

Levels of fertility fell markedly during the 1960s, and by 1976 had fallen to below the level required to replace the population (2.1 children per woman). This decline, together with lower levels of immigration, has

Australia's population, 1925-2025 (a)



(a) Based on Series A projections.

Source: Estimated Resident Population (unpublished data); Projections of the Populations of Australia (unpublished data).

Growth of the child population

Year	Aged 0-4	Aged 5-11	Aged 12-17	Total children	% change
	%	%	%	'000	%
1925	29.8	39.0	31.2	2 153.5	..
1935	25.1	40.2	34.7	2 146.6	-0.3
1945	32.0	36.0	32.0	2 160.4	0.6
1955	32.6	41.5	25.9	3 046.1	41.0
1965	29.3	39.3	31.4	3 971.3	30.4
1975	28.0	38.3	33.8	4 575.5	15.2
1985	26.5	37.2	36.3	4 522.3	-1.2
1995	27.9	39.1	33.0	4 620.3	2.2
2005(a)	27.5	39.1	33.4	4 861.9	5.2
2015(a)	27.0	38.7	34.3	4 933.8	1.5
2025(a)	27.6	38.8	33.6	5 005.3	1.4

(a) Based on Series A projections.

Source: Estimated Resident Population (unpublished data); Projections of the Populations of Australia (unpublished data).

contributed to the leveling out of the child population over the last two decades.

Between 1985 and 1995 the child population increased by only 2%, having declined by just over 1% over the previous decade. Some of the impact of the low level of fertility was offset by an increase in the number of children born as a result of the baby-boom generation reaching child-bearing age. This echo effect was especially evident in the early 1970s (see *Australian Social Trends 1996*, Trends in fertility, pp. 36-40).

While the number of children has increased, the proportion of the population who are children has decreased. In 1925 children accounted for 36% of Australia's total population. By 1995, this had decreased to 26%. This trend is related to declines in levels of fertility as well as increases in the numbers of older people due to increases in longevity. These influences on the relative size of the child population are expected to continue. In 2025 children are projected to represent 21% of the total population.

The relative decline in the child population is most apparent when compared with the growth of the population aged 65 years and over. Thus while the child population increased by 1% between 1975 and 1995, the population aged 65 and over increased by 78%.

As well as changes in the size of the child population, the age distribution of children has fluctuated since 1925 with a consequent effect on demands for different age-related services. For example, in 1955, 33% of all

children were infants or toddlers (0-4 years), 42% were of primary school age and 26% were aged 12-17. However, with declining fertility, children in the 0-4 years age group have come to represent a smaller proportion of the child population (28% in 1995). This trend has tended to shift the demands for child-related services in favour of the needs of older children.

Slow growth in the future

The most recent set of ABS population projections indicates that the number of children is expected to increase over the next 30 years. However, the rate of increase is expected to be relatively slow and as time progresses, to decrease further.

The future size of the child population is dependent on the future numbers of women of child-bearing age and their levels of fertility. Future levels of fertility are difficult to predict as they are influenced by changes in marriage patterns as well as changes in attitudes towards having children. These changes are in turn influenced by such things as changing patterns of labour force participation and the perceived costs of having children as well as other, as yet unknown, factors.

Net migration gains from children born overseas will also contribute to the future growth of the child population, but compared to births (an average of 260,000 per year between 1990 to 1995) the gains are likely to be small. The number of children aged under 18 from net migration, an average of 27,900

per year between 1990 and 1995, have been relatively small. Deaths of children aged under 18 (an average of 2,900 per year between 1990 and 1995) have a much smaller impact on the overall size of the child population.

The methods used to produce population projections take into account these various factors and use different sets of assumptions about fertility, mortality and migration to provide several population growth scenarios. These alternative scenarios are referred to as projection Series A to D. In projection Series A, the total fertility rate is assumed to remain at the 1994 level of 1.85 children per woman. Using this series, the number of children is projected to increase to a little under 4.9 million in 2005, a little over 4.9 million in 2015 and just over 5.0 million in 2025. From 1995 to 2025, the number of pre-school children (aged 0–4) is projected to increase by 46,000 while the numbers aged 5–11 and 12–17 are projected to increase by 95,200 and 100,000 respectively.

In projection Series D, an alternative fertility assumption is used. Fertility is assumed to decline between 1994 and 2004 from 1.85 to 1.75 children per woman after which it remains unchanged. With these assumptions the size of the child population is projected to increase at a slower rate and by 2025 is projected to be 4.7 million, around 300,000 fewer than the Series A projection.

Projections methodology

The ABS uses the cohort component method of population projection. This method takes a base year population for each sex by single year of age and advances it year by year by applying assumptions about future mortality, fertility and migration. This procedure is repeated for each year in the projection period for each State and Territory and for Australia. The resulting population projections for each year for the States and Territories, by sex and age in single years, are adjusted to sum to the Australian results.

The ABS produces several series of population projections based on different combinations of assumptions about mortality, fertility and migration. Most of the data presented here are from projection Series A, because the assumptions (fertility remaining at 1994 levels, low overseas migration and high interstate migration) most closely reflect prevailing trends.

For detailed information on the assumptions underlying Series A, see *Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories, 1995 to 2051* (Cat. no. 3222.0).

Projected(a) growth of the child population

State/Territory	1995	2025	% change
	'000	'000	%
NSW	1 546.8	1 665.3	7.7
Vic.	1 125.8	1 067.8	-5.2
Qld	863.0	1 125.8	30.5
SA	358.8	324.5	-9.6
WA	462.5	563.6	21.9
Tas.	126.9	102.4	-19.3
NT	55.7	65.8	18.1
ACT	79.8	89.1	11.8
Aust.	4 620.3	5 005.3	8.3

(a) Refers to Series A projections.

Source: Projections of the Populations of Australia (unpublished data).

Irrespective of which assumptions are used (Series A or D), the balance between younger and older children will remain fairly stable over the next 30 years.

Trends at regional levels are more difficult to predict. Regional differences in population composition (notably, the proportions of women of child-bearing age) and patterns of fertility will affect local trends. Moreover, future changes in the numbers of children within particular areas are also affected by levels of inter-regional migration.

States and Territories

Many decisions relating to the provision of services for children, such as the establishment or expansion of schools, are made by State and local governments.

Each State and Territory population has a different age profile. For example, although one third of all children lived in New South Wales in 1995, they made up only 25% of the population in that State, slightly less than the Australian average of 26%. In contrast, 32% of the population in the Northern Territory were children. These differences can also be observed in the Population — State summary table (see p. 3) which shows proportions of the populations aged 0–14.

Between 1995 and 2025, the overall number of children is projected to fall in Tasmania (by 19%), South Australia (10%) and Victoria (5%). However, this will be offset by increases in the other States and Territories, especially

Queensland (30%), Western Australia (22%) and the Northern Territory (18%).

High growth localities

Much of the rapid increase in the child population during the post-war baby boom occurred in newly developed outer-suburban areas of our major cities, creating so-called nappy valleys.

Viewing the progression of babies to pre-adolescents and teenagers that occurred as these suburbs developed has indicated that the need for many children's services in particular areas often develops in a cyclical manner. When a suburb is first established, the population grows rapidly as large numbers of young couples move in. Population growth continues as these couples have children, and bring demands for services. As child-bearing is completed, population growth levels off but the demands of an older child population increase. Eventually the population begins to decline as children leave home, and the need for schools and other services declines. This decline may be accelerated as the original settlers either move out or die. However, population decline is stopped if new people move into the suburb. If these people are young couples, the population may begin to increase and the cycle repeats¹.

This simplified model suggests that local areas with the greatest needs for particular children's services (such as the need for more schools) can be identified according to their life-cycle stage. Locating areas experiencing high levels of growth in the pre-school aged population helps to identify high demand areas for schools and other children's services.

Between 1990 and 1995, many of the Statistical Local Areas (SLAs) experiencing the highest growth in the 0-4 year age group were located on the outer fringe areas of capital cities. Of the five SLAs with the greatest increase, one was in Brisbane (Caboolture), two were located in Sydney's West (Blacktown

Areas with the largest increases in children aged 0-4, 1990-95

Statistical local area (SLA) (a)	Part of State/Territory	Increase 1990-95 no.
Caboolture-Part A	Brisbane	2 662
Casey-Berwick	Melbourne	1 933
Blacktown	Sydney	1 845
Casey-South	Melbourne	1 765
Liverpool	Sydney	1 630
Swan	Perth	1 535
Rockingham	Perth	1 475
Cairns-Part A	Far North Qld	1 469
Maroochy-Part A	Sunshine Coast	1 260
Wyndham	Melbourne	1 233
Wyong	Sydney	1 100
Noarlunga	Adelaide	1 096
Gordon	Canberra	1 039
Frankston-East	Melbourne	912
Canterbury	Sydney	896
Mandurah	South West WA	868
Hervey Bay	South Central Qld	821
Palmerston	Canberra	749
Parramatta	Sydney	731
Camden	Sydney	696

(a) For information about the composition of Statistical Local Areas, see *Australian Standard Geographical Classification* (Cat. no. 1216.0).

Source: Estimated Resident Population (unpublished data).

and Liverpool) and the remaining two were in Melbourne (Casey-Berwick and Casey-South).

¹ Hugo, Graeme 1986, *Australia's Changing Population: Trends and Implications*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne.

Birthplace of overseas-born Australians

COMPOSITION

While the majority of Australia's overseas-born population have come from the United Kingdom and other European countries, the Asian born are a rapidly growing segment.

Australian governments have actively supported immigration for most of this century. This support, together with continued expansion in the range of countries from which immigrants have been drawn, has created the unique multi-cultural society we have today.

The overseas-born population has increased in number from 2.8 million in 1976 to 4.2 million in 1996 (rising from 20% to 23% of Australia's total population). In 1976 the top six birthplace groups were from European countries and accounted for 70% of all people born overseas. By 1996, the top six groups only accounted for 53% of the total overseas-born population and included people born in New Zealand (now the second largest group) and Viet Nam.

People from the United Kingdom and Ireland still form the largest group. However, their number as a proportion of the total overseas-born population has declined, falling from 41% in 1976 to 29% in 1996. While the number of people from these countries was

Birthplace groups

Main English speaking countries (MESC) — consists of United Kingdom and Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, United States of America and South Africa.

Non-English speaking countries (NESC) — all overseas countries except United Kingdom and Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, United States of America and South Africa.

Former Yugoslav Republics — consists of Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Slovenia and the former Yugoslav Republics of Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro.

still higher in 1996 than in 1976, it has fallen since 1991.

There has also been a decline in the size of populations from other European countries. For example, Italian and Greek populations, the second and third largest in 1976, have declined numerically and proportionally.

Countries			Countries			Countries		
1976			1986			1996p		
%			%			%		
1	UK and Ireland	41.1	UK and Ireland	34.7	UK and Ireland	28.7		
2	Italy	10.3	Italy	8.0	New Zealand	7.1		
3	Greece	5.7	New Zealand	6.4	Italy	6.1		
4	Yugoslavia	5.3	Yugoslavia	4.7	Former Yugoslav Republics	4.4		
5	Germany	4.0	Greece	4.3	Viet Nam	3.6		
6	Netherlands	3.4	Germany	3.6	Greece	3.4		
7	New Zealand	3.2	Netherlands	3.0	Germany	2.8		
8	Poland	2.1	Viet Nam	2.6	China	2.5		
9	Malta	2.1	Poland	2.1	Hong Kong and Macau	2.3		
10	USSR	1.9	Malta	1.8	Netherlands	2.3		
11	India	1.4	Lebanon	1.8	Malaysia	2.3		
12	Lebanon	1.2	India	1.5	Philippines	2.2		
	Other	18.3	Other	25.6	Other	32.2		
	Total	100.0	Total	100.0	Total	100.0		
	MESC(a)	46.5	MESC(a)	44.1	MESC(a)	39.5		
	NESC(b)	53.5	NESC(b)	55.9	NESC(b)	60.5		

(a) Main English speaking countries.

(b) Non-English speaking countries.

Source: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0).

Growth in major birthplace groups

Major birthplace groups (1996)	1976	1996p	Change 1976-96
	'000	'000	'000
UK and Ireland	1 166.7	1 207.6	40.9
New Zealand	90.1	297.5	207.4
Italy	291.1	258.8	-32.3
Yugoslavia(a)	151.2	186.2	35.0
Viet Nam	2.5	149.9	147.4
Greece	162.1	144.6	-17.5
Germany	112.8	118.9	6.1
China	20.1	103.4	83.3
Hong Kong and Macau	8.9	98.0	89.1
Netherlands	97.1	97.3	0.2
Malaysia	19.9	96.1	76.2
Philippines	5.8	94.7	88.9
Other	707.9	1 356.0	648.1
Total overseas-born	2 836.2	4 209.0	1 372.8
MESC(b)	1 318.4	1 661.2	342.8
NESC(c)	1 517.8	2 547.8	1 030.0

(a) Former Yugoslavia Republics.

(b) Main English speaking countries.

(c) Non-English speaking countries.

Source: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0).

The Asian-born population has grown rapidly, particularly in the last decade. In 1996 people born in Asian countries represented 22% of all people born overseas, and 5 of the top 12 birthplace groups were from Asian countries. The Vietnamese population, Australia's largest Asian birthplace group, increased from 2,500 in 1976 to 149,900 in 1996.

The combined population from the main English speaking countries (MESC) of United Kingdom and Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, United States of America and South Africa continues to grow, but at a slower rate than the population from predominantly non-English speaking countries (NESC). In 1996 the NESC population represented 61% of those born overseas compared to 54% in 1976.

Migration since World War II

The size and composition of the annual intake of migrants to Australia has varied considerably since World War II. These changes were influenced by many factors including economic and political conditions in countries of origin and Australia, and changes in Australian Government policies

(see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Birthplaces of Australian settlers, pp. 9-12).

Before World War II the vast majority of settlers came from the United Kingdom and Ireland. In 1947 however, Australia began to accept large numbers of displaced persons from Europe, particularly Eastern Europe, the Netherlands and Italy. During the 1950s the number of settlers from Italy and the Netherlands increased further, accompanied by large numbers of people from Greece and Germany. The number of settlers from Southern Europe remained high throughout the 1960s and, while the proportion from Italy and Greece tapered off after 1970, immigration from Yugoslavia continued at relatively high levels into the early 1970s.

Since then the number of immigrants from Asia (particularly Viet Nam) and Oceania (mainly New Zealand) has increased. By 1991-95, New Zealand accounted for 9% of settler arrivals, Viet Nam 7%, and Asian countries comprised four of the six top birthplaces of settlers. Throughout the post-war period, the United Kingdom and Ireland has continued to be the largest single source of settlers but their proportion of the total intake has declined over time to 14% in the period 1991-95.

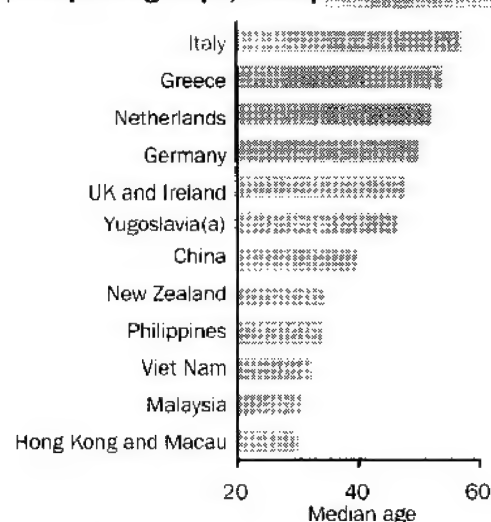
Top 12 countries of birth of settlers

Country	1971-75	
	'000	% total intake
UK and Ireland	227.2	41.4
Yugoslavia(a)	39.2	7.2
Greece	21.2	3.9
USA	20.0	3.7
Italy	18.5	3.4
New Zealand	18.5	3.4
Country	1991-95	
	'000	% total intake
UK and Ireland	63.2	14.0
New Zealand	41.3	9.1
Hong Kong and Macau	36.3	8.0
Viet Nam	33.7	7.5
Philippines	23.0	5.1
India	20.8	4.6

(a) Former Yugoslav Republics.

Source: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures* (Cat. no. 3404.0); *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).

Median age of top 12 overseas birthplace groups, 1996^a



(a) Former Yugoslav Republics.

Source: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0).

The current birthplace mix of Australia's overseas-born population and the large differences in the age profiles of individual birthplace groups reflect these successive waves of immigration from different parts of the world.

Age and socio-economic status

The age composition of new arrivals is considerably younger than that of the total population so that the more recently arrived birthplace groups have a much younger age profile than either the total population or those groups which arrived mainly in earlier migration waves.

While aspects of their cultural heritage may be maintained by subsequent generations (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Second generation Australians, pp. 5–10), Australian-born children of migrants are not included in population counts of the overseas-born. Consequently, overseas birthplace groups experience more rapid ageing than the Australian-born population.

Of the top 12 overseas birthplace groups in 1996, the Italian born had the oldest age profile (median age 57 years) followed by those from Greece, the Netherlands and Germany, all with median ages of 50 years or older. In contrast New Zealanders and the more recently arrived Asian groups (people from the Philippines, Viet Nam, Malaysia and Hong Kong) were the youngest, with median ages below 35 years.

Differences in the age profiles of birthplace groups help to explain why various measures of socio-economic status, such as labour force participation rates, unemployment rates, educational attainment and dependency on income support, differ between birthplace groups. This is because these measures are themselves often associated with a person's age.

For example labour force participation (LFP) rates increase markedly in the 20–24 years age group, peak in the 25–44 years age range, then decline rapidly after 60 years of age. The social security recipient (SSR) rate also varies with age, increasing rapidly in pre-retirement years (mainly disability support pension) and after retirement (age pension).

The effect of the age profile of birthplace groups on differences in these two indicators of socio-economic status can be seen among the top 12 overseas birthplace groups. In 1996, the countries with the oldest age

Selected characteristics of overseas-born populations, 1996

Top 12 birthplace groups in descending order of median age	Labour force participation rate(a)	Social security recipient rate(b)
	%	%
Italy	41.1	49.6
Greece	41.6	47.5
Netherlands	52.6	38.2
Germany	56.8	34.5
UK and Ireland	61.7	27.1
Yugoslavia(c)	58.1	37.3
China	58.5	20.1
New Zealand	73.9	19.8
Philippines	67.8	17.2
Viet Nam	64.1	30.6(d)
Malaysia	64.0	6.4
Hong Kong and Macau	52.6	4.0
Total overseas-born	59.2	28.8
Total population	63.3	26.0

(a) Labour force at June 1996 expressed as a percentage of the civilian population aged 15 years and over.

(b) Persons receiving a Department of Social Security (DSS) pension benefit or allowance (excluding family payments and drought relief) at June 1996 expressed as a percentage of the population aged 16 years and over.

(c) Former Yugoslav Republics.

(d) Viet Nam, Cambodia, Laos combined.

Source: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0); *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0); Department of Social Security (unpublished data).

Immigrant populations(a) in selected OECD countries, 1993

	Immigrant populations(a)	
	%	'000
Luxembourg	31.1	124.5
Australia	22.8	4 033.0
Switzerland	18.1	1 260.3
Canada (1991)	16.1	4 342.9
Germany	8.5	6 878.1
USA (1990)	7.9	19 767.3
Sweden	5.8	507.5
Netherlands	5.1	779.8
UK	3.5	2 001.0
Italy	1.7	987.4
Japan	1.1	1 320.7

(a) See information box for definitions.

Source: OECD, *Trends in International Migration, Annual Report 1994*.

profiles; Italy, Greece, Netherlands and Germany, had the lowest LFP rates and, apart from Germany, the highest SSR rates. People from New Zealand and the more recently arrived Asian birthplace groups (except Hong Kong) all had LFP rates above the national average and, with the exception of the Vietnamese, lower than average SSR rates.

International comparison

With more than four million people born overseas (representing 23% of the total population) Australia has one of the largest immigrant populations in the world. When compared to other major host countries in the OECD in 1993 only the United States of America, Germany and Canada had bigger migrant populations. However, when measured as a proportion of the total

Immigrant populations

Persons born in another country – Australia, Canada, the United States of America and New Zealand define their immigrant population primarily as those born in another country and who have been granted the right to live permanently in the host country. Australian estimates of the immigrant population also include long-term (12 months or more) residents.

Persons of foreign nationality – the balance of OECD countries define their immigrant populations as persons of foreign nationality who are registered as living in the host country. Registration of permanent and most long-term (12 months or more) foreign residents is common to all of these countries. However, the requirement for shorter term residents to register varies between countries. Germany requires all foreigners owning or renting a private dwelling to register regardless of intended length of stay.

population, Australia had the largest migrant population of all OECD countries except Luxembourg, whose relatively small migrant population of 125,000 represented 31% of the total population.

In recent decades, Canada and the United States of America, like Australia, have experienced increasing numbers of settlers from Asian countries and a decline in the numbers of settlers from European countries.

These trends are reflected in changes in the composition of the overseas-born populations in these countries. For example, in 1981 people born in Asian countries made up 9% of the total overseas-born population in Australia and 14% in Canada. By 1991 Asians accounted for 18% of all overseas-born in Australia and 25% in Canada. In 1990 migrants from Asia made up 25% of the total overseas-born population in the United States of America compared to 18% in 1980.

Birthplace of immigrant populations in Australia, Canada and the USA

Birthplace region	Australia		Canada		USA	
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1980	1990
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Europe and former USSR	75.4	60.9	66.7	54.4	36.6	22.0
Asian regions	8.9	18.2	14.1	24.5	18.0	25.2
The Americas(a)	3.1	4.0	15.1	16.2	37.0	46.3
Other(b)	12.6	17.0	4.1	4.9	8.3	6.5
Total ('000)	3 110.9	3 965.3	3 848.3	4 342.9	14 079.9	19 767.3

(a) Consists of Northern America, Southern America, Central America and the Caribbean.

(b) Includes birthplace not stated.

Source: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0); OECD, *Trends in International Migration, Annual report 1994*.

Changing links with Europe

COMPOSITION

In 1995, 29% of the overseas-born population had been born in the United Kingdom or Ireland and 28% had been born in other European countries. This compares to 41% and 40% respectively, in 1976.

Europe is one continent, but has a wide variety of cultures and histories. In 1994, 13% of the world's population lived in Europe. The countries of the European Union (EU) alone accounted for 38% of total world exports and 37% of total world imports. However, the majority of European trade is with other European countries¹.

As Australia has been strengthening its relationship with neighbouring countries in Asia over recent decades (see *Australian Social Trends 1996*, Expanding links with Asia, pp. 10–16), our relationship with Europe has also changed.

Europeans in Australia

The vast majority of the convicts who arrived in 1788, and of the soldiers who commanded them, were of British origin. The gold rushes in the 1850s and 1860s first brought people from a variety of cultural backgrounds into Australia. However, fears of invasion from Asia and a belief that people from different cultural backgrounds could not live together in one country, fuelled a move towards restricting settlers to people from Britain².

The White Australia Policy (including *The Immigration Restriction Act 1901*, *The Pacific Islanders Labourers Act 1901* and *The Naturalisation Act 1903*) was a policy of restricting immigration including a dictation

Europe

The *Australian Standard Classification of Countries for Social Statistics (ASCCSS)* (Cat. no. 1269.0) classifies Europe and the Former USSR into six groups.

The United Kingdom and Ireland comprises England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, Channel Islands, Isle of Man and Ireland.

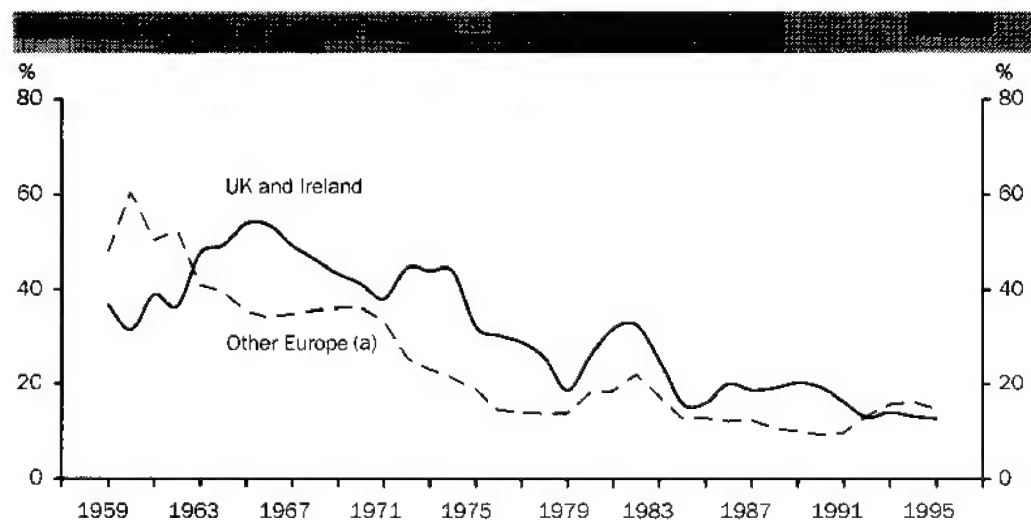
Southern Europe comprises Albania, Andorra, Cyprus, Gibraltar, Greece, Holy See, Italy, Malta, Portugal, San Marino, Spain and the Former Yugoslav Republics (Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Slovenia, Serbia and Montenegro).

Western Europe comprises Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Monaco, Netherlands and Switzerland.

Northern Europe comprises Denmark, Faeroe Islands, Finland, Greenland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden.

Eastern Europe comprises Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Czech Republic and Slovak Republic.

The Former USSR and the Baltic States comprises Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Estonia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine and Uzbekistan.



(a) Includes Cyprus as part of Europe since 1986.

Source: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (Cat. no. 3404.0 and unpublished data).

European Community

The *European Community* (EC) grew from the establishment of the European Coal and Steel Community in 1951, the European Atomic Energy Community and the European Economic Community both in 1957 with six members: Belgium, Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. From 1967 the three communities merged to form the EC. In 1973 Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom joined the EC followed by Greece in 1981, Spain and Portugal in 1986 and Austria, Finland and Sweden in 1995.

Many other European nations have signed special agreements with the EC directly or through the *European Free Trade Agreement* (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland) and other European countries have applied to join the EC.

The EC was formed with the goal of creating a European Union (EU). It aims to set up a common market in Europe where workers, goods and capital could circulate freely². Thus far, this has included creating a European currency unit (which will be available in 1999) and a European Parliament. A European passport is now in use, although it is still issued by the individual member states and remains their responsibility.

test in any European language chosen by the administering officer². This policy continued in practice until well after World War II. Through the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s a number of different European countries contributed, in turn, to Australian settler numbers. Australia began taking settlers first from Northern Europe and later from Southern Europe. By the 1960s small numbers of Asian immigrants were also entering Australia. However it was not until 1973 that the White Australia Policy completely disappeared from Australia.

Settler arrivals

In 1995, 28% of settlers arriving in Australia had been born in Europe. The single largest source country for settlers, remained the United Kingdom and Ireland (13%). The other European countries from which Australia received more than 1,000 settlers in 1995, were the countries of the Former Yugoslav Republics (particularly Bosnia-Herzegovina) and the countries of the Former United Soviet Socialist Republic.

The United Kingdom and Ireland has been the largest source of settlers throughout this century. In 1925, 78% of settlers to Australia were British nationals⁴. In the pre-World

Length of settler arrivals

Selected countries	1976(a)	1995	1995
	%	%	no.
Europe and the Former USSR	44.8	27.6	26 742
UK and Ireland	30.2	12.8	12 367
Former Yugoslav Republics	2.6	7.6	7 387
Former USSR and the Baltic States	0.8	2.0	1 909
Germany	1.3	0.9	911
Italy	2.0	0.3	312
Greece	2.7	0.3	285
Total settlers(b)	100.0	100.0	96 969

(a) Excludes Cyprus.

(b) Includes other countries of birth.

Source: Overseas Arrivals and Departures (unpublished data).

War II period (1925–1939), the proportion of settlers who were British nationals averaged 71%. By the late 1940s the proportion had dropped to below half. However it was not until the mid 1970s that the proportion of settlers who were from the United Kingdom and Ireland began to fall dramatically, from 44% in 1974 to 13% in 1995.

The proportion of settlers who were from other European countries was low in the period between the World Wars but peaked in 1960 at 60%. In the same year the proportion from the United Kingdom and Ireland had dropped to its lowest point until 1976, at 31%.

Many long-term visitor arrivals to Australia become settlers. In 1995, as in 1986, 19% of all long-term visitor arrivals to Australia, had been born in Europe, mainly the United Kingdom and Ireland, Germany, France, and the Netherlands.

Overseas-born Australians

In 1995, 58% of overseas-born Australians had been born in a European country, over half of these in the United Kingdom or Ireland. However the proportion born in the United Kingdom and Ireland dropped from 79% in 1901 to 29% in 1995.

In 1901 the other important European country of birth was Germany (4%). By 1947 the proportion had dropped to 2%. It increased to 5% again during the 1950s and 1960s before dropping to 3% by 1995.

Selected countries	1901	1947	1954	1966	1976	1986	1995p
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Europe and the Former USSR	87.9	87.6	89.8	88.9	81.3	68.4	57.6
Germany	4.5	2.0	5.1	5.1	4.0	3.5	2.9
Greece	0.1	1.7	2.0	6.6	5.6	4.2	3.5
Italy	0.7	4.5	9.3	12.5	10.3	8.1	6.3
UK and Ireland	79.2	72.7	51.6	42.6	41.1	34.7	29.4
Former Yugoslav Republics	(a)	0.8	1.8	3.3	5.3	4.6	4.4
Other Europe and the Former USSR	3.5	5.9	20.0	18.8	15.0	13.2	11.1
Total overseas born(b)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total overseas born	857.6	744.2	1 286.5	2 130.9	2 718.8	3 247.4	4 122.3

(a) The Former Yugoslav republics were included in other Europe and the Former USSR in 1901.

(b) Includes other countries of birth.

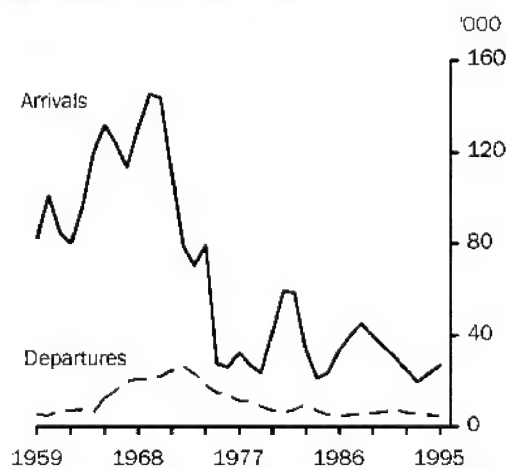
Source: Census of Population and Housing (1901-1986) (unpublished data), Estimated Residential Population (1995p) (unpublished data).

Italy provided a substantial proportion of the overseas-born population, particularly in the second half of the century. In 1966, 13% of overseas-born Australians had been born in Italy. However by 1995, this had halved to 6% of the overseas-born population.

Emigration

Some settlers emigrate from Australia after living here for a period of years. In 1972, emigration of European-born settlers peaked at 26,400. This was three years after immigration from Europe peaked at 145,400 settlers.

Permanent arrivals and departures of European-born settlers



Source: Overseas Arrivals and Departures (unpublished data).

In 1995, 4,900 European-born settlers left Australia. This reflects the lower numbers of European immigrants in 1992, 1993 and 1994 (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Emigration, pp. 13-17).

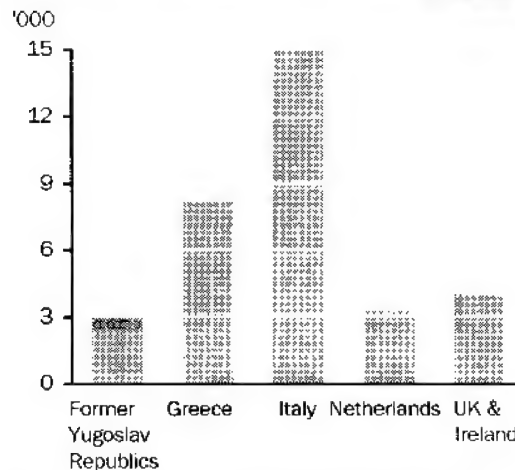
There is no direct measure of the proportion of new settlers who emigrate within a year of their arrival. An approximation can be obtained by comparing the number of immigrants who arrived in one year with the number of emigrants departing in the same year, who stated that they had been in Australia for less than one year. Of the major birthplace groups in 1995, the largest ratio of former settlers emigrating within the same year, came from the United Kingdom and Ireland (24 for every 1,000 settlers). This compares to 8 of every 1,000 other Europeans.

Some emigrants spend most of their working lives (paying taxes) in Australia then return to their country of birth, or another country, after retirement. In 1995, 34% of the European settlers leaving Australia had lived here for 20 years or more.

Overseas pensions

Australia pays full or partial pensions to many former Australian residents overseas, particularly in Europe, under shared responsibility agreements. In 1996, 40,800 (86% of all pensions paid overseas) were paid to European residents; 14,900 (32%) were paid to Italian residents and 8,200 (17%) were

Distribution of Australian pensions to overseas residents, June 1996

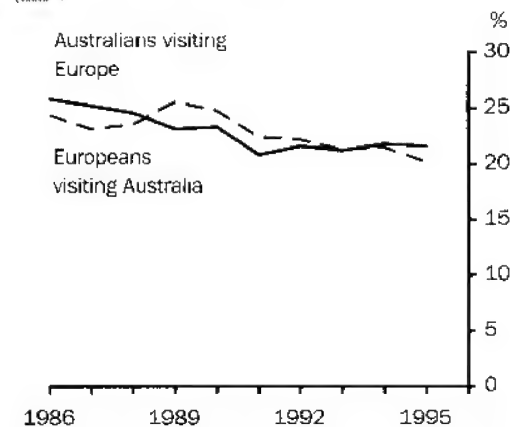


Source: Department of Social Security, DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview, 1996.

paid to Greek residents. The majority (88%) of pensions paid to European residents were age or disability support pensions.

Data relating to overseas pensions do not identify all Australians receiving pensions overseas, as some countries, such as New Zealand and the United Kingdom, have host country agreements with Australia to pay pensions to Australian former residents, while Australia pays pensions to their former residents living in Australia. These agreements do not include portability arrangements for some Australian residents who qualify for a pension in Australia and subsequently migrate to another country, taking their pension with them.

Proportion of short-term overseas visits to and from Australia



Source: Overseas Arrivals and Departures (unpublished data).

Europeans visiting Australia

Although the number of permanent settlers from Europe has dropped markedly since the highs earlier this century, the number of Europeans visiting Australia has increased. In 1995, 752,000 short-term visitors arrived from Europe, over twice the number (347,000) in 1986.

However most short-term visitors to Australia came from Asia (1.9 million in 1995). Thus while the number of European visits has increased, their proportion of all visits has declined over the last decade (from 24% to 20%).

People travelling to and from Australia are asked to give the main reason for their trip. In 1995 almost half (49%) of all European visitors came to Australia for a holiday and 34% came to visit family or friends. Most of the remainder (11% of all European visitors), came for business or employment purposes. This pattern has changed since 1986, when there were proportionally fewer visitors coming to Australia for a holiday. Between 1986 and 1995 the number of European visitors coming to Australia for a holiday nearly tripled, while the number coming to visit family or friends almost doubled.

Source countries of short-term visitors from Europe varied somewhat from those of permanent settlers. Approximately half of both settlers and visitors from Europe were from the United Kingdom and Ireland in 1995. However, 17% of short-term visitors were from Germany and 5% were from each of Italy, Switzerland, France and the Netherlands.

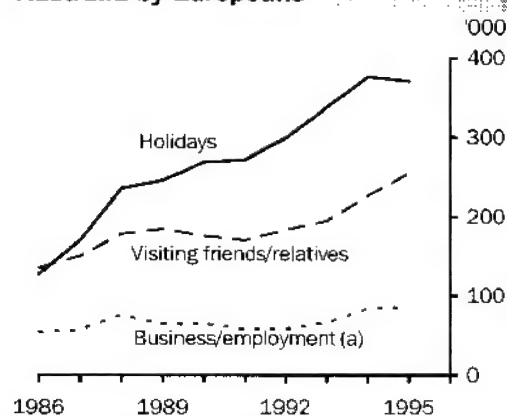
Country of residence	Business/ employment(a)	Friends/relatives	Holiday	Total(b)
	%	%	%	%
Europe and the Former USSR	11.4	33.8	49.3	100.0
UK and Ireland	10.5	46.3	39.0	100.0
Germany	8.3	15.7	71.3	100.0
Italy	12.9	25.5	54.9	100.0
Switzerland	6.8	14.4	73.0	100.0
France	18.4	18.9	54.1	100.0
Netherlands	10.6	36.6	47.1	100.0

(a) Includes visits for conferences and conventions.

(b) Includes other reasons.

Source: Overseas Arrivals and Departures (unpublished data).

Reasons for short-term visits to Australia by Europeans



(a) Includes visits for conferences and conventions.

Source: Overseas Arrivals and Departures (unpublished data).

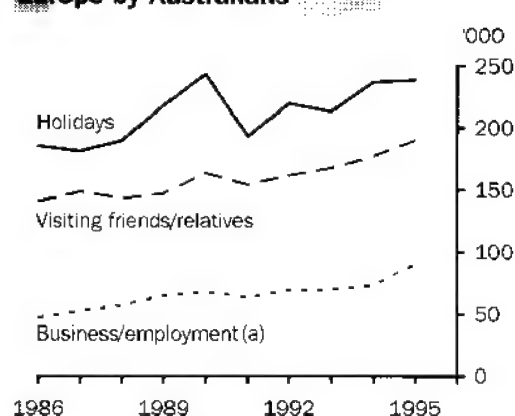
In 1995, the United Kingdom and Ireland were the only countries in Europe from where more visitors came to visit relatives and friends (46%) than for a holiday (39%). In comparison, 73% of Swiss visitors and 71% of German visitors came for a holiday. 18% of French visitors came for business or employment reasons compared to an average of 11% for all European visitors. However, of all European visitors who came for business or employment reasons, 44% came from the United Kingdom and Ireland and 12% came from Germany.

Australians visiting Europe

As for the number of European visitors to Australia, the number of Australians visiting Europe has also increased. Between 1986 and 1995 visitor numbers grew by 37%, from 397,000 to 544,000. In comparison, 939,000 Australians visited Asia in 1995, up from 497,000 in 1986. As a proportion of all departures, trips to Europe declined from 26% to 22%.

In 1995 most Australians visiting Europe did so for a holiday (44%) or to visit family or friends (35%). 16% travelled for business or employment purposes. This pattern was similar in 1986 but the increase in the number of Australians visiting Europe for a holiday has not been as high as the increase in the number of Europeans visiting Australia for a holiday. Australians going to Europe for business or employment reasons increased from 46,900 in 1986 to 89,400 in 1995. The number of Europeans coming to Australia for short-term business trips also increased over the period, from 53,800 to 85,900.

Reasons for short-term visits to Europe by Australians



(a) Includes visits for conferences and conventions.

Source: Overseas Arrivals and Departures (unpublished data).

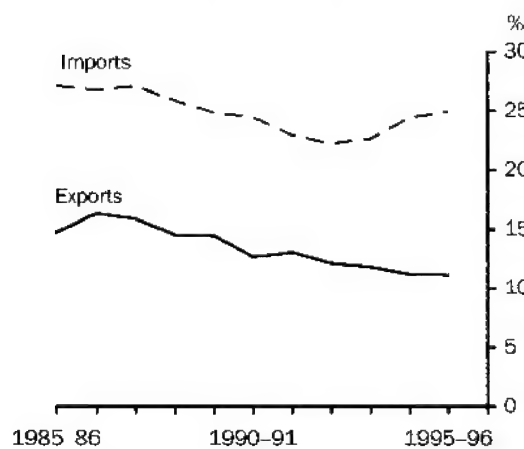
The main destination of Australian visitors to Europe was the United Kingdom and Ireland. 52% of all Australians visiting Europe went to these countries in 1995. A further 9% went to Italy and 6% went to Greece and Germany. Around half of the visitors to the United Kingdom and Ireland, Greece, Italy and France were for holidays. In comparison, one quarter of visitors to Germany were for holidays, 33% were for business or

Australia's investment position at 30 June 1995

Selected countries	Australian investment abroad	Foreign investment in Australia
	%	%
Europe and the Former USSR	35.6	29.9
European Union	27.6	28.0
Belgium and Luxembourg	0.4	2.0
France	1.4	1.0
Germany	1.9	2.0
Netherlands	1.6	2.9
Italy	0.6	0.2
UK	19.6	19.0
Other European countries	7.9	1.9
Switzerland	0.6	1.8
Total all countries	100.0	100.0
	\$ billion	\$ billion
Europe	50.2	119.7
Total all countries	141.2	400.9

Source: Balance of Payments and International Investment Position, Australia (Cat. no. 5363.0).

Trade with the European Union



Source: *International Merchandise Trade, Australia* (Cat. no. 5422.0).

Trade with the United Kingdom



Source: *International Merchandise Trade, Australia* (Cat. no. 5422.0).

employment purposes and 36% were to visit friends and relatives.

Investment with Europe

The changes in Australia's relationship with Europe can be measured not only in the number of people moving between Australia and Europe, but also in the levels of trade and investment between Australia and Europe.

At 30 June 1995, Australia had \$141.2 billion invested overseas, 36% of that in Europe. At the same time, European investment in Australia made up 30% of total overseas investment in Australia. The respective proportions were much the same in 1990. Thus in terms of investment our overall relationship with Europe has changed very little in the last five years.

In 1995, the United Kingdom accounted for 19% of investment in Australia and 20% of Australian investment overseas. The only country in which Australian investment overseas was greater (and whose investment in Australia was also greater) was the United States of America.

The European country with the highest investment in Australia other than the United Kingdom, was the Netherlands. In 1995, 3% of investment in Australia was from the Netherlands.

Trade with Europe

Overall, the proportion of Australia's trade with Europe throughout the last decade has declined slightly. In relative terms, our exports to the European Union have dropped

from a peak of 16% of total exports in 1986-87 to 11% in 1995-96. Our imports from the European Union have also dropped from 27% of total imports in 1985-86 to a low of 22% in 1992-93 before rising again to 25% in 1995-96.

The balance of trade between Australia and the European Union has grown more in favour of the European Union as the gap between imports and exports has increased.

The United Kingdom continues to be an important trading partner, receiving 4% of our exports, while 6% of our imports came from there in 1995-96. A further 6% of our imports came from Germany.

While the balance of trade remains in favour of the United Kingdom, the gap between imports and exports has narrowed over the decade.

Endnotes

- 1 Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT) 1996, *Australia's Trade with the European Union 1995*, DFAT, Canberra.
- 2 Jupp, J. (ed.) 1988, *The Australian People*, for the Australian Bicentennial Authority, Angus and Robertson.
- 3 Eurostat 1989, *Europe in Figures*, 2nd edition, Eurostat, Brussels-Luxembourg.
- 4 British nationals were not necessarily born in the United Kingdom and Ireland. Some may have been born in Commonwealth countries (other than Australia), such as New Zealand. Prior to 1959 nationality, not country of birth, was recorded for immigrants to Australia.

Family

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FAMILY FORMATION

Age at first marriage	27
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Since 1974 the median age at first marriage of bridegrooms and brides has increased by four years. An increasing proportion of first marriages involve women marrying younger men.

FAMILY FUNCTIONING

Families and work	30
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Between 1981 and 1996, the proportion of families with children aged 0-14 in which both parents worked, increased from 41% to 54%. However, the proportion of families in which neither parent was employed also increased.

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

One-parent families	34
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In the ten-year period 1986-96, one-parent families as a proportion of all families with dependent children, increased from 15% to 19%.

Family — national summary

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS		Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Total families	'000		4 087	4 146	4 236	4 319	4 456	4 502	4 587	4 638	4 709	4 791	4 834
Persons who live alone (of persons aged 15 and over)	%		8.2	8.3	8.5	8.4	8.2	8.6	8.9	9.6	9.6	10.0	10.2
Average family size (persons)	no.		3.3	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.1
Couple families with dependants (of all families)	%		45.8	45.5	45.7	44.7	44.3	43.7	43.4	42.9	41.6	41.4	40.6
One-parent families with a male parent with dependants (of all families)	%		n.a.	n.a.	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.3
One-parent families with a female parent with dependants (of all families)	%		n.a.	n.a.	7.0	6.8	7.1	7.4	7.9	7.9	7.8	8.5	8.4
Couple only families (of all families)	%		30.2	30.4	30.7	31.5	31.2	31.3	31.1	32.1	33.3	33.6	34.1
De facto couples (of all couples)	%		5.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	8.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.y.a.
Couples with dependants, both employed (of all couples with dependants)	%		48.5	50.2	50.9	53.8	55.9	53.4	53.3	52.5	52.8	57.7	55.7
One-parent families with dependants, parent employed (of all one parent families with dependants)	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	50.2	49.0	47.0	45.7	45.3	45.9	46.9	46.8

FAMILY FORMATION		Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Marriage rate (per 1,000 not married males)	no.		48.8	46.0	45.8	45.5	44.6	43.5	41.7	41.1	39.8	38.2	36.7
Median age of men at first marriage	years		25.4	25.6	25.9	26.1	26.3	26.4	26.7	26.9	27.0	27.2	27.3
Median age of women at first marriage	years		23.2	23.5	23.8	24.0	24.2	24.3	24.5	24.7	24.8	25.1	25.3
Marriages where both partners married for the first time (of all marriages)	%		67.1	66.7	67.2	67.1	67.3	67.4	67.5	67.2	67.1	67.5	67.5
Divorce rate (per 1,000 married males)	no.		10.9	10.7	10.6	10.8	10.8	10.9	11.6	11.5	12.1	12.0	12.3
Median duration of marriage to separation	years		7.7	7.6	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.4	7.4	7.6	7.7	7.6
Divorces involving children (of all divorces)	%		60.6	59.7	58.6	57.5	55.3	55.6	54.2	52.9	52.6	n.a.	n.a.
Total fertility rate (per woman)	no.		1.89	1.87	1.85	1.84	1.84	1.90	1.85	1.89	1.87	1.85	1.82
Median age of mothers at first birth within registered marriage	years		26.3	26.5	26.8	27.1	27.3	27.6	27.8	28.0	28.3	28.5	28.6
Births to mothers aged under 20 (of all births)	%		5.9	5.9	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.7	5.4	5.1	5.0	4.9
Births to mothers aged over 35 (of all births)	%		7.5	7.9	8.5	9.0	9.6	10.0	10.7	11.4	11.9	12.9	13.7
Births outside marriage (of all births)	%		15.5	16.8	18.0	19.0	20.2	21.9	23.0	24.0	24.9	25.6	26.6
Births outside marriage acknowledged by father (of all births outside marriage)	%		68.2	70.6	73.0	74.4	75.9	77.1	79.5	81.0	81.7	82.2	83.3

Reference periods:

Data on family formation are for the calendar year. Data on de facto couples are at census date. Data on other living arrangements are at 30 June from 1986; prior to that the reference date was 30 July.

Family — State summary

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total families	'000	1996	1 647	1 191	892	401	461	131	34	75	4 834
Persons who live alone (of persons aged 15 and over)	%	1996	10.0	10.2	9.5	12.3	10.4	11.5	7.2	9.1	10.2
Average family size (persons)	no.	1996	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.1
Couple families with dependants (of all families)	%	1996	41.3	41.7	38.6	37.4	40.6	39.5	48.9	47.1	40.6
One-parent families with a male parent with dependants (of all families)	%	1996	1.3	1.1	1.5	1.2	0.8	1.4	* *	* *	1.3
One-parent families with a female parent with dependants (of all families)	%	1996	8.2	8.3	8.7	8.5	8.4	9.2	10.5	9.1	8.4
Couple only families (of all families)	%	1996	33.0	32.4	37.4	36.3	35.2	36.9	26.3	29.5	34.1
De facto couples (of all couples)	%	1991	7.9	6.7	9.7	7.9	9.6	8.3	18.5	9.2	8.4
Couples with dependants, both employed (of all couples with dependants)	%	1996	55.1	55.9	55.4	59.1	52.3	53.3	61.2	69.7	55.7
One-parent families with dependants, parent employed (of all one parent families with dependants)	%	1996	47.5	45.6	43.1	45.2	51.2	49.3	65.6	63.4	46.8

FAMILY FORMATION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Crude marriage rate	no.	1995	6.2	5.9	6.3	5.8	6.0	6.0	4.6	5.8	6.1
Median age of men at first marriage	years	1995	27.5	27.4	26.9	27.0	27.5	26.8	28.4	27.2	27.3
Median age of women at first marriage	years	1995	25.3	25.7	24.9	25.1	25.5	24.8	26.1	25.3	25.3
Marriages where both partners married for the first time (of all marriages)	%	1995	68.3	70.4	65.3	65.9	64.7	63.1	60.6	66.4	67.5
Crude divorce rate	no.	1995	2.4	2.6	3.1	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.2	* *	2.8
Median duration of marriage to separation	years	1995	6.7	7.6	8.0	8.2	8.8	8.3	6.8	8.1	7.6
Divorces involving children (of all divorces)	%	1994	50.0	n.a.	56.6	47.6	50.3	61.3	56.7	56.3	n.a.
Total fertility rate (per woman)	no.	1995	1.87	1.76	1.82	1.75	1.86	1.91	2.43	1.69	1.82
Median age of mothers at first birth within registered marriage	years	1995	28.5	28.9	28.1	29.1	28.5	28.3	28.5	28.6	28.6
Births to mothers aged under 20 (of all births)	%	1995	4.7	3.4	6.4	4.3	6.0	6.3	13.8	3.9	4.9
Births to mothers aged over 35 (of all births)	%	1995	14.1	14.8	12.0	14.6	12.8	11.8	9.6	14.3	13.7
Births outside marriage (of all births)	%	1995	24.9	21.8	30.7	27.4	29.7	33.3	57.2	25.7	26.6
Births outside marriage acknowledged by father (of all births outside marriage)	%	1995	83.8	84.6	82.6	85.3	84.3	86.6	64.3	81.5	83.3

Reference periods:

Data on defacto couples are at census date. Data on other living arrangements are at 30 June.

Family — definitions and references

- Average family size** — the total number of family members divided by the number of families.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Birth** — the delivery of a child irrespective of the duration of pregnancy who, after being born, breathes or shows any other evidence of life such as heart beat.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Births outside marriage** — births where the father was not registered as married to the mother at the time of the birth, whether or not the parents were living together at the time of the birth, and whether or not the child may subsequently have been legitimated or adopted.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Births outside marriage acknowledged by father** — births outside registered marriage where the father's name is recorded on the birth certificate.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Couple family** — a family consisting of a male and a female partner who are registered as married or are in a de facto relationship. It may include one or more dependent children and/or other family members.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Couple family with dependants** — a couple family with at least one dependent child present.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Couple-only family** — a couple family with no dependent children or other family members (e.g. adult children) present.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Crude divorce rate** — the number of divorces granted in the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year.
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).
- Crude marriage rate** — the number of marriages registered in the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year.
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).
- De facto couple** — a couple who identified themselves as de facto partners in a relationship question.
Reference: *1991 Census — Community Profiles, Australia* (Cat. no. 2722.0).
- Dependants (dependent children)** — all family members under 15 and family members aged 15–24 attending an educational institution full-time, except those classified as husbands, wives, lone parents or other family heads.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Divorce rate** — the number of divorces granted per 1,000 male or female population registered as married.
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).
- Divorces involving children** — divorces of couples with unmarried children of the registered marriage who were under 18 at the time of application for divorce. Under the *Family Law Act 1975*, adopted and ex-nuptial children and children from a former registered marriage may be included (in certain cases). Children who are registered as married or aged 18 or more are not subject to custody and guardianship orders and are excluded.
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).
- Employed** — persons aged 15 and over who either worked during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Family** — two or more people related by blood, registered marriage, adoption, or a de facto relationship who live in the same household. Three major family types are identified: couple families, one-parent families and families of related adults. Families living in non-private dwellings and non-family members (such as friends or boarders) are excluded.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Lone parent** — the head of a one-parent family.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Marriage rate** — the number of registered marriages per 1,000 not married male or female population aged 15 and over.
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).
- Marriages where both partners married for the first time**
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).
- Median** — the value at which half the population falls above, and half falls below.
- Median age at first marriage**
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).
- Median age of mothers at first birth within registered marriage**
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Median duration of marriage to separation** — the median interval between the date of registered marriage and the date of separation.
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).
- One-parent family with dependants** — a parent together with at least one dependent child of his/her own.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Persons who live alone** — persons who are the only member of a household.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).
- Total fertility rate** — the average number of children a woman would bear during her lifetime if she conformed to the current age-specific fertility rates.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).

Age at first marriage

FAMILY FORMATION

Since 1974 the median age at first marriage of bridegrooms and brides has increased by four years. An increasing proportion of first marriages involve women marrying younger men.

Traditionally, registered marriage has been the path chosen by couples wishing to form a recognised partnership. The ages at which they commonly first marry have not remained static over the last half century. In the 30 years following the second world war, there was a steady decline in the age at which people first married. This trend was reversed from 1974.

Not only have young couples been entering marriage at later ages over the last 20 years, but the diversity of ages at which men and women first marry has widened. In addition, the proportion of first marriages which involve women marrying younger men increased from 11% in 1974 to 20% in 1995.

As well as changes in the timing of first marriage, there have been changes to the institution itself. There has been a shift away from traditional church weddings to alternative locations and ceremonies (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Religion and marriage, pp. 186–189). Even the marriage vows themselves have been modified by many couples. There has also been an increase in de facto partnering (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Trends in de facto partnering, pp. 38–40).

Changes similar to those that have occurred in Australia have also occurred in many other developed countries that have undergone similar social and economic changes¹.

First marriage

Median age and age distribution of bridegrooms and brides are based on age at first marriage for the individuals. Some of these marriages would have been to a partner who was marrying for the second time. Data examining the age difference between brides and bridegrooms are based on marriages in which both partners were marrying for the first time.

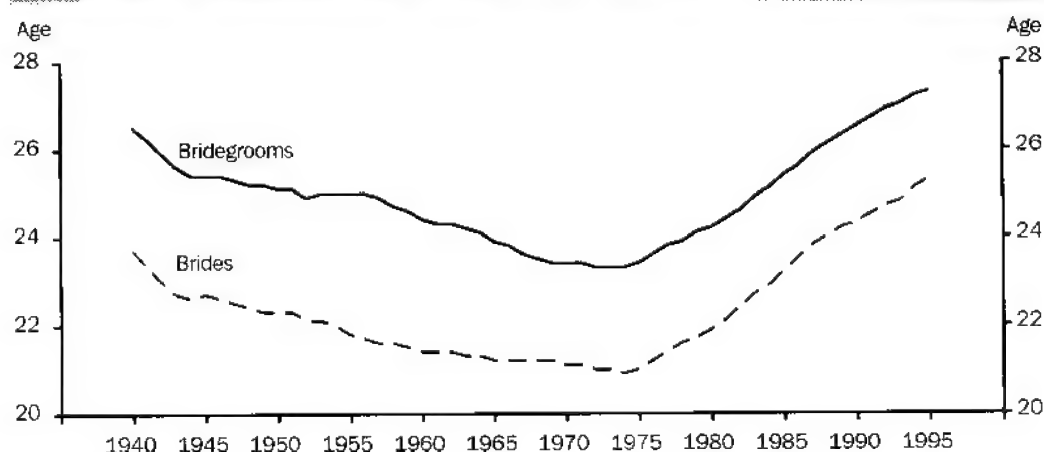
Changes over time

Marriage registration data shows that the median age at first marriage declined through the 1940s, 1950s and 1960s, and then increased again through the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s.

In 1940 the median age at first marriage was 26.5 for bridegrooms and 23.7 for brides. By 1974 this had fallen to 23.3 for bridegrooms and 20.9 for brides. This pattern of steady decline reflected the many changes in Australian society that occurred through the post-war years.

During World War II there was a short boom in marriage rates (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Trends in marriage and divorce, pp. 33–37). These additional marriages usually occurred at a younger age than was common at the time: a phenomenon assumed at the time to be a temporary change in marriage patterns².

Median age of bridegrooms and brides at first marriage



Source: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0 and unpublished data).

During the post-war period of the late 1940s and 1950s there was a climate of reconstruction and a return to a 'normal' way of life in Australia, as in other countries affected by the war. This extended to family formation, and couples tended to marry and start families at an early age.

The post-war boom in the Australian economy also meant that couples could afford to marry early. Good employment prospects for men provided economic security and reduced the need to delay marriage until a couple could afford to become established².

Increasing levels of control over fertility with the introduction of the birth control pill in 1961 helped to provide young people with more lifestyle choices. The age of marriage continued to decline through the 1960s and early 1970s.

Meanwhile, foundations were being laid for a reassessment of traditional roles, leading to extensive social change. The rising strength of the women's movement meant that increasing numbers of young women were participating in post-compulsory education and work, options that had not been available to their mothers. The extra time it took to achieve these goals was probably a major factor leading to the postponement of marriage. Other factors influencing the rise in age at first marriage during the late 1970s included the increased availability of abortion and rising unemployment levels¹.

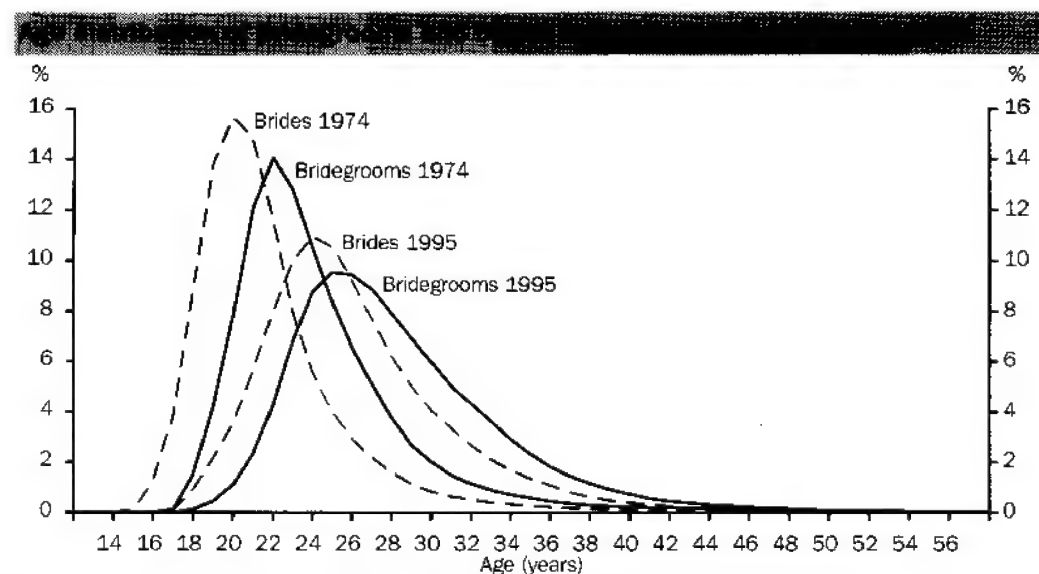
The decline in age at first marriage was finally arrested in 1974. The median age of first marriage of bridegrooms and brides started to

increase and has continued to increase steadily to 27.3 for bridegrooms and 25.3 for brides in 1995.

As well as postponing marriage, couples were reappraising the importance and relevance of marriage during the 1970s. This resulted from the reduced influence of religion on young Australians, rising divorce rates that undermined the idealism of marriage, and the sexual revolution of the 1960s and 1970s that helped to separate sexuality from marriage¹. In more recent years, the number of couples who chose to postpone or reject the tradition of marriage in favour of a de facto relationship has risen. By 1992, more than half (56%) of all couples who married in that year had cohabited before their current marriage, compared to 16% in 1975³.

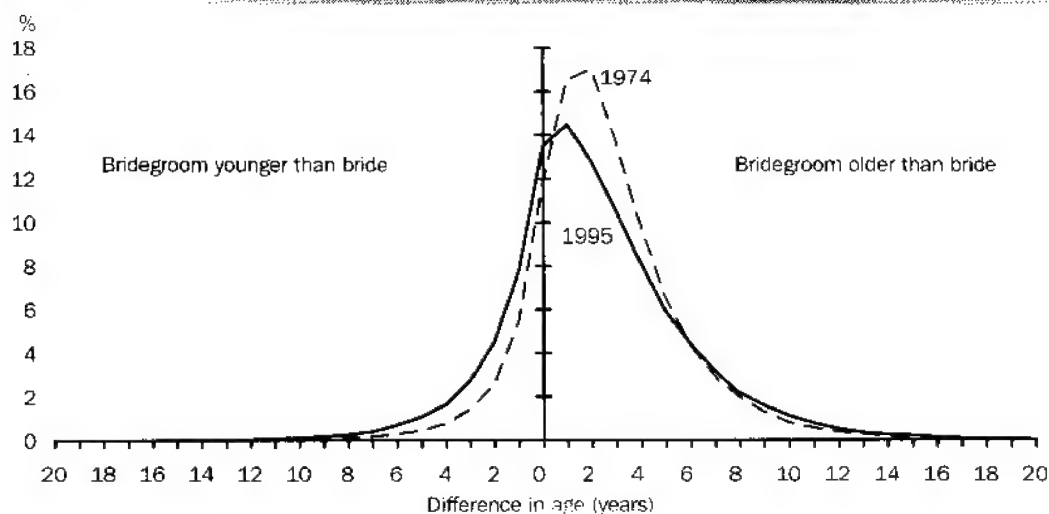
The degree to which de facto partnering has influenced the change in age at first marriage is difficult to determine. It has been suggested that around half of the retreat from formal marriage since the mid 1980s might be attributed to de facto partnering. However, it is not simply the case that people were marrying later because they were cohabiting as an alternative to marriage: people were also avoiding unions of either type more than they previously had done¹.

Marriage registrations no longer reliably reflect the partnering patterns of couples. Neither is there a regular and detailed source of information on the formation of de facto partnerships to augment marriage registration information.



Source: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0); and *Marriages, Australia* (Cat. no. 3306.0).

Distribution of the difference in age between couples at first marriage (a), 1974 and 1995



(a) Based on couples in which both bridegroom and bride were married for the first time.

Source: Marriages and Divorces (unpublished data).

Age distribution

As well as the increase in the age at first marriage over the last 20 years or so, there has also been a widening of the range of ages of bridegrooms and brides at first marriage.

In 1974, 35% of bridegrooms and 39% of brides marrying for the first time were aged within one year of their medians. By 1995 each of these proportions had fallen by 10 percentage points.

Age differences

Men generally marry younger women.

However, the proportion of first marriages in which the man was younger has increased between 1974 and 1995. This may have been a further effect of the relaxation of pressures to conform to previous patterns.

In 1995, about two thirds of first marriages involved a bridegroom marrying a younger bride, and in 14% they were the same age. For the remaining 20% of first marriages, the bride was older. By comparison, in 1974 only 11% of first marriages involved a bridegroom marrying an older bride.

However, the age gap between bridegroom and bride was generally smaller when the bridegroom was younger than the bride. In 1995, 15% of first marriages where the bridegroom was younger than the bride involved an age difference greater than four years. In comparison, 31% of first marriages in which the bridegroom was older than the bride involved an age difference greater than four years.

References

- 1 Carmichael, G. 'Consensual partnering in the more developed countries', *Journal of the Australian Population Association*, Volume 12, No. 1, May 1995.
- 2 Carmichael, G. 1988, *With This Ring: First Marriage Patterns, Trends and Prospects in Australia*, Department of Demography, Australian National University and The Australian Institute of Family Studies, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1994, *Focus on Families: Demographics and Family Formation*, Cat. no. 4420.0. ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Carmichael, G. 'A cohort analysis of marriage and informal cohabitation among Australian men', *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Sociology*, Volume 27, No. 1, March 1990.

Families and work

FAMILY FUNCTIONING

Families with children are now more likely to have two incomes. But the proportion with neither parent working has also increased.

Employment is a major factor in the well-being of a family. For most families employment is the main source of income. Adequate and reliable income from employment gives a family access to the basic requirements for normal life, such as food, shelter, clothing, transport etc., as well as the ability to enjoy recreational activities such as holidays and entertainment. Besides earning money, employment can also increase an individual's self-esteem and provide a sense of purpose and belonging. Conversely, unemployment, particularly long-term unemployment, can mean that families struggle to achieve the basic requirements of life and often cannot afford activities like holidays or entertainment. Unemployment also affects children. Children in families where unemployment is persistent can grow up with no experience of family involvement in the labour force.

In Australia, in June 1996, there were 134,200 couple families with children aged 0-14 in which both partners were not in employment (8% of couple families with children aged 0-14). Conversely, there were 930,200 couple families with children aged 0-14 in which both partners were employed (54% of couple families with children aged 0-14). Data from earlier surveys show that the proportion of

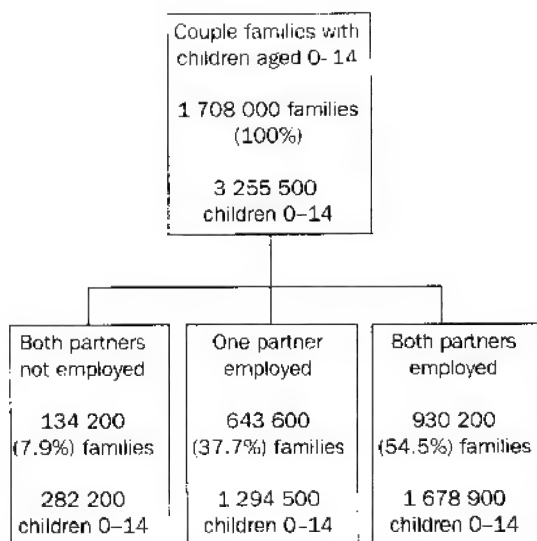
Labour force definitions

Employed people were 15 or older who, during the survey reference week, worked for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business or had a job but were not at work. People who worked 35 hours a week or more during the reference week and people who usually worked 35 hours or more a week were classified as *employed full time*. People who usually worked less than 35 hours a week, and did so in the reference week, were classified as *employed part time*. *Unemployed people* were 15 or older and were not employed during the reference week but were actively looking for and available for work. People who were working, or looking for and available for work, were *participating in the labour force*. People who were not participating, were *not in the labour force* (NILF). In this review *not employed* comprises people who were NILF and people who were unemployed.

Couple families with children aged 0-14 consisted of a male and female partner (who were registered as married or were in a de facto relationship) with one or more child(ren) aged 0-14 with or without other family members.

two-income families and families with no employment income have both been increasing. Between 1981 and 1996, the proportion of families with children aged 0-14 in which both parents worked increased by 13 percentage points, from 41% to 54%. The proportion of families with children aged 0-14 in which neither parent was employed also increased, from 5% in 1981 to 8% in 1996. Consequently, the proportion of families in which only one partner was employed has decreased.

Labour force status of couple families with children aged 0-14, June 1996



Source: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia, (Cat. no. 6224.0).

The social context

Changes in family employment patterns have come about because of the interaction between changing social mores and changes in the economy and the labour force. The restructuring of the labour force together with rising unemployment levels over the past two decades have influenced these trends. These have been accompanied by marked increases in the participation of women in the labour force, especially in part-time work (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Changing industries, changing jobs, pp. 93-98; *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Trends in

Family type	June 1981	June 1986	June 1991	June 1996
	%	%	%	%
Both parents employed	41.0	47.8	51.8	54.5
Father employed, mother not employed	52.9	43.4	37.1	34.8
Mother employed, father not employed	1.2	1.6	2.9	2.9
Both parents not employed	5.0	7.3	8.1	7.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total couple families with child(ren) aged 0-14	1 698.9	1 654.8	1 681.8	1 708.0

Source: Labour Force, Australia (Cat. no. 6203.0).

part-time work, pp. 103-108; and Long-term unemployment, pp. 114-119).

Against the background of these broad-scale changes, other patterns are also discernible, though not easily explained. For example, women with an unemployed husband have much lower employment rates than women with employed husbands¹.

The age of children

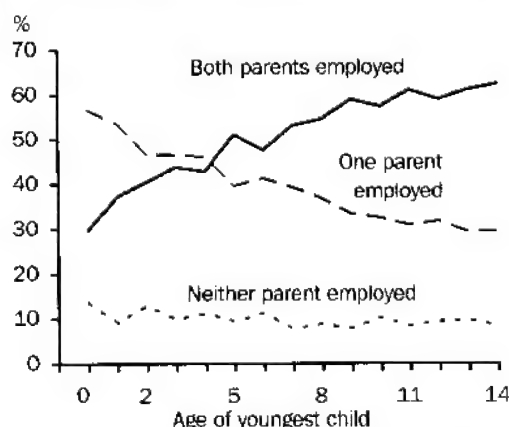
The labour force status of parents is strongly related to the age of the youngest child in the family. The younger the youngest child, the greater is the likelihood that only one parent, generally the mother, will either not be in the labour force or, if she is, that she will be working part time. These patterns are consistent with the family responsibilities undertaken by mothers (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Family support, pp. 41-45).

In June 1996, 51% of mothers whose youngest child was under five years old were not in the labour force. Mothers whose youngest child was older, aged 10-14 years, were more likely to be working, with 72% employed.

Among working mothers, part-time employment was more common when the youngest child was under five years (66% of those who were employed, worked part time). Working mothers whose youngest child was aged 10-14 years were slightly more likely to be working full time than part time (52% of those employed, worked full time).

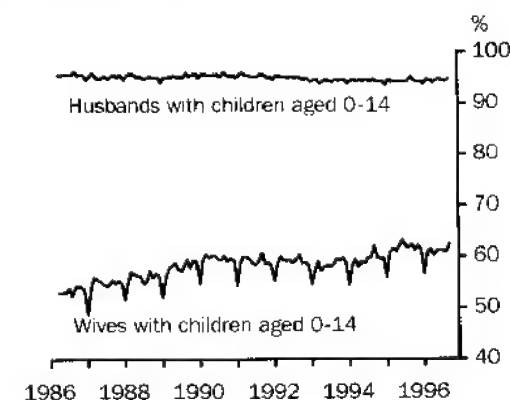
The labour force patterns of fathers were unaffected by the age of their children. The proportions employed were 89% for those with a youngest child aged under five and 90% for those whose youngest child was aged 5-9 years or 10-14 years.

Labour force status of the parents of children aged 0-14, 1992



Source: Survey of Families in Australia (unpublished data).

Seasonal variations in labour force participation



Source: Labour Force, Australia (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Table 2.2. Labour force status of couples with children aged 0-14 years, June 1996

Age of youngest child by husband's labour force status	Wife employed			Wife un-employed	Wife not in labour force	Total families
	Full time	Part time	Total			
	%	%	%	%	%	'000
Youngest child aged 0-4	15.4	30.6	46.0	3.4	50.6	846.1
Husband employed	14.4	29.2	43.6	2.6	42.5	..
Employed full time	13.8	27.9	41.7	2.4	40.1	..
Employed part time	0.6	1.3	1.9	0.2*	2.3	..
Husband not employed	1.1	1.3	2.4	0.8	8.2	..
Youngest child aged 5-9	25.0	40.0	65.0	5.1	29.9	448.2
Husband employed	23.9	38.0	61.9	3.5	24.4	..
Employed full time	22.4	36.6	58.9	3.1	22.7	..
Employed part time	1.5	1.5	2.9	0.5*	1.7	..
Husband not employed	1.1	2.0	3.1	1.5	5.5	..
Youngest child aged 10-14	37.3	35.0	72.4	3.6	24.1	413.7
Husband employed	35.2	33.4	68.6	2.6	18.6	..
Employed full time	33.7	32.0	65.7	2.0	17.1	..
Employed part time	1.5	1.4	2.9	0.6*	1.5	..
Husband not employed	2.2	1.6	3.8	1.0	5.5	..

(a) For each family type (classified by age of youngest child) all percentages are based on the total number of families shown in the last column.

Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).

The proportion of families in which neither the husband nor the wife was employed decreased slightly as the age of their youngest child increased; 9% of couple families with at least one child aged under 5 years; 7% of couple families in which the youngest child was aged 5-9 and 6% of families in which the youngest child was aged 10-14.

There is a distinct seasonal pattern to the labour force participation rates of mothers of children aged 0-14 years. In net terms, about 4-5% of them leave the labour force over the summer holidays, presumably to look after their children. After the holidays end they re-enter the labour force.

Hours worked

The combined hours that couples with children work have increased over the past 10 years. This reflects both the increase in the time employees work in a week (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, The working week, pp. 91-93) and the increase in the proportion of women who choose to work.

Between June 1986 and June 1996 the proportion of couple families with at least one child aged 0-14, in which the partners worked more than 60 combined hours per week, increased from 33% to 40%. The proportion that worked less than 30 combined hours per week also increased slightly, from 16% to 17% (this group includes couples that worked zero hours because neither partner was employed and couples that worked zero hours because the partner/s was on leave etc.). Similar changes were observed across specific age groups for the youngest child.

In June 1996, among couples whose youngest child was under five, 31% worked more than 60 combined hours per week and 19% worked fewer than 30 combined hours (including 9% of couples in which neither partner was employed). Among couples whose youngest child was aged 10-14, 53% worked more than 60 combined hours per week and 15% worked fewer than 30 combined hours per week (including 7% of couples in which neither partner was employed).

Distribution of combined hours worked by parents in couple families with children aged 0-14

Hours worked in paid employment by both partners	Youngest child aged 0-4		Youngest child aged 5-9		Youngest child aged 10-14	
	June 1986	June 1996	June 1986	June 1996	June 1986	June 1996
	%	%	%	%	%	%
90 or more	5.1	5.6	8.7	9.4	9.9	15.3
80-89	3.9	6.1	7.4	9.1	9.0	9.0
70-79	6.9	8.0	10.2	11.4	12.1	13.0
60-69	9.5	11.7	11.5	14.5	13.1	15.4
50-59	12.7	13.2	14.1	14.3	12.1	10.5
40-49	26.3	20.9	22.0	15.6	17.8	14.2
30-39	18.3	15.3	12.3	9.7	11.4	8.2
20-29	4.0	4.2	2.7	3.3	3.5	3.0
10-19	1.5	2.6	1.3	2.4	0.9	2.0
1-9	1.0	1.3	0.7	1.3	0.8	1.3
Zero(a)	3.2	2.3	2.3	1.8	2.3	1.8
Neither partner employed	7.5	9.0	6.9	7.0	7.1	6.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(a) Includes employed partner/s who worked no hours during the survey period due to leave etc.

Source: Labour force status and other characteristics of families (unpublished data).

Implications for families

The information presented demonstrates that the care of children is a major influence on the work patterns of, usually, the mother. This in turn influences the income of her family. Equally, having both partners working implies reduced time for family responsibilities and increased use of alternative child-care arrangements, which may require considerable expenditure.

There is little information about the impact of parental working arrangements on the well-being of their children. A small survey carried out by the Institute of Family Studies revealed some differences in the well-being of adolescents in different family circumstances. In the study adolescents were scored on a number of measures, such as health, warmth/sociability, sense of mastery or personal control over circumstances. The views of the parents on other well-being issues were also solicited. The study found that adolescents had the lowest scores when

either both parents had no paid job or when the father had no paid job².

Families in which both partners are unemployed are undoubtedly disadvantaged in many ways³. However, parents can be employed yet still have relatively low income if their jobs are low skilled or they work part time. This could be the case even in families in which both partners are employed.

Endnotes

- 1 King, A. et al. *Why do the Wives of Unemployed Men Have Such Low Employment Rates?*, Social Policy Research Centre Reports and Proceedings No. 125, December 1995, University of NSW.
- 2 Weston, R. 'Well-being of young people in different family circumstances', *Family Matters*, No. 36, December 1993.
- 3 McClelland, A. 'Long-term unemployment: costs and responses', *The Australian Economic Review*, Second Quarter 1993.

One-parent families

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

In the ten-year period from 1986–1996, one-parent families as a proportion of all families with dependent children increased from 15% to 19%.

A growing number of Australian families comprise children with only one resident parent. For many people, these one-parent families represent a transitional family type. They are most likely to begin when parents in couple families separate from each other and end when lone parents find new partners or children leave home.

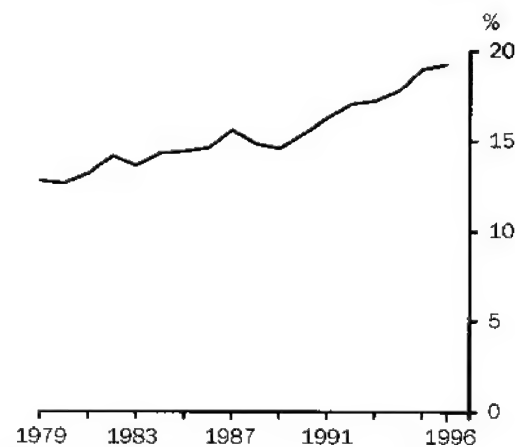
Lone parents face challenges at home and in the workplace. They are supported by government and often by family, friends and ex-partners. Nevertheless, one-parent families generally have a much lower level of economic well-being than couple families.

Recent trends

According to the Labour Force Survey, in the ten-year period from 1986–1996 the number of one-parent families in Australia increased by almost 50% from 311,800 to 467,200. Over this period, one-parent families as a proportion of all families with dependent children increased from 14% to 19%.

Between 1986 and 1996 there was little change in the relative proportions of lone-mother and lone-father families. Of all lone-parents in 1996, 87% were lone mothers and 13% were lone fathers.

One-parent families as a proportion of all families with dependants(a)



(a) Prior to 1988 lone-parent families include a small number of other non-couple families with dependent children.

Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

Families and dependants

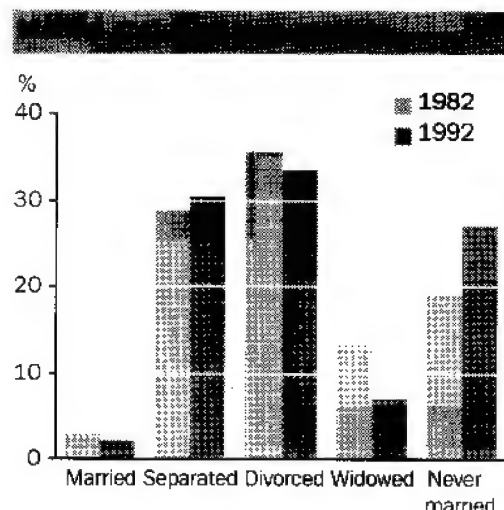
In this review, *one-parent families* consist of a parent who did not live with a partner (either married or de facto) together with at least one dependent child of his/her own. Some of these families may also contain co-resident non-dependent children or other related adults. Parents in these families are *lone parents*: either *lone mothers* or *lone fathers*. Likewise, one-parent families are either *lone-mother families* or *lone-father families*.

Couple families with dependent children consist of a male and female partner (either married or de facto) together with at least one dependent child. Parents in these families are either *partnered mothers* or *partnered fathers*.

Dependent children (or *dependants*) are all persons aged 0–14 and persons aged 15–24 who are full-time students, live with a parent and who do not have a spouse or offspring of their own living with them.

Some differences occur in definitions over time and across surveys. Major departures from the above definitions are noted in the text.

The 1992 Family Survey found that 15% of all dependent children were living in one-parent families. Of these children, around one in five was aged four years or under. Just over half of all one-parent families (55%) contained only one dependent child.



Source: Survey of Families in Australia (unpublished data).

Age group (years)	One-parent families				Couples	
	Mother		Father			
	1986	1996	1986	1996	1986	1996
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Parent(a)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
15-24	13.5	12.3	0.8*	1.8*	6.0	3.9
25-34	34.2	33.1	21.6	18.0	40.3	34.0
35-44	36.6	35.7	45.1	43.5	39.8	45.1
45 and over	15.6	18.9	32.5	36.8	13.9	17.0
Youngest dependant	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
0-4	31.2	35.4	15.1	14.5	42.4	43.1
5-9	27.1	25.1	21.3	18.6	23.1	22.8
10-14	27.8	23.5	41.0	36.7	22.9	21.1
15-24	13.9	16.0	22.6	30.3	11.6	13.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total families	275.2	406.6	36.6	60.6	1 872.3	1 963.0

(a) For couples, age of wife is used.

Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

Lone mothers are likely to have younger children than lone fathers (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Lone fathers with dependent children, pp. 40-42). This pattern appears to have become more firmly established. Between 1986 and 1996 the proportion of lone mothers whose youngest child was aged 0-4 increased from 31% to 35%, while the proportion of lone fathers whose youngest child was aged 15-24 increased even further, from 23% to 30%. Despite these trends, the proportion of lone mothers whose youngest child was aged 15-24 also increased, from 14% to 16%.

The proportion of lone parents aged 24 years and under remained low, accounting in 1996 for only 12% of lone mothers and 2% of lone fathers.

Family dynamics

Few data are available on the transition of people into one-parent families. However, factors other than widowhood and divorce from registered marriages are becoming more significant. These factors include the separation of couples in de facto relationships.

Around 64% of lone parents (289,400) in 1992 were either separated or divorced, the same proportion as in 1982.

In 1992, 32,500 lone parents, or 7%, were widowed, representing falls in both actual numbers (from 37,100) and proportion (from 13%) since 1982.

In contrast, there were large increases in the number of lone parents who were never married. In 1992, 123,000 lone parents (27% of lone parents) were never married, more than double the 1982 figure of 53,500 (19% of lone parents). These lone parents were more likely to be parents who were previously in de facto relationships than single parents who had never lived with the other parent of the child.

Between 1982 and 1992 the number of de facto couples with dependent children rose from 60,900 to 123,100. These couples, like those in registered marriages, are vulnerable to relationship breakdown. Therefore, the greater the number of de facto couples with children the greater the inflows of people from these relationships to the lone-parent population (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Trends in de facto partnering, pp. 38-40).

Income and housing

Research consistently shows that one-parent families are over-represented among low income families and that they are at greater risk of poverty than couple families. Their

Table 10.10: Economic well-being of lone-parent families

Selected characteristics	Units	Lone parents			Couple parents		
		Mother	Father	Total	Female partner	Male partner	Total
Income (1994-95)							
Average weekly income	\$	385	506	402	969
Principal source of income from pensions/benefits)	%	64.7	25.7*	59.4	11.4
In lowest income quintile(b)	%	32.2	31.4*	32.1	15.6
Housing (1994-95)							
Renting	%	59.0	36.8	55.9	19.0
More than 30% of income spent on housing costs	%	36.0	28.3*	34.9	14.5
Employment (June 1996)							
Labour force participation	%	52.3	77.2	55.5	62.7	93.7	..
Unemployment rate	%	17.1	8.8	15.7	6.1	5.8	..

(a) Based on income units for income and housing.

(b) Based on Henderson equivalent income (see Income - definitions and references, p. 116).

Source: Survey of Income and Housing Costs (unpublished data), Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

vulnerability results from the difficulty of undertaking paid employment while bringing up children alone.

The 1994-95 Survey of Income and Housing Costs found that lone-parent families have much lower incomes and rely more heavily on government pensions and benefits than do couple families with dependent children. In 1994-95, the average weekly income for lone-parent families was \$402, well below that of \$969 for couple families with dependent children. Lone fathers, who tend to have older children and higher levels of participation in paid employment, were financially better off than lone mothers. In 1994-95, the average weekly income for lone-father families was \$506 compared to \$385 for lone-mother families.

Because one-parent families have fewer members on average than couple families with dependent children, their costs of living are lower. When incomes are adjusted for differences in family composition and size, the difference in income between the two family types is reduced. Nevertheless, even on the basis of equivalent income, 32% of one-parent families, compared to 16% of couple families with dependants, fall in the lowest income quintile.

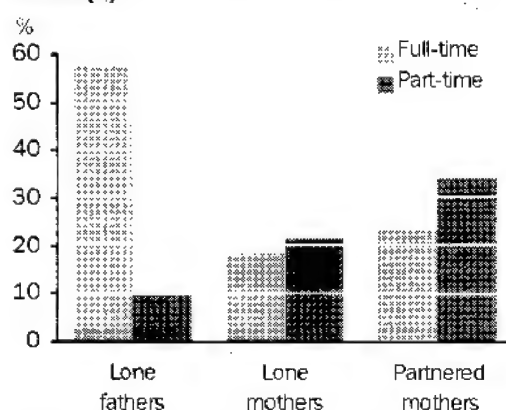
Lone parents are more likely to experience housing stress than couples with dependent children. In 1994-95, 35% of lone-parent families were spending more than 30% of their income on housing, compared to 14% of

couple families with dependent children. One-parent families are also more likely to live in rented accommodation. This is particularly so for lone-mother families, 59% of which live in rented accommodation.

Work and child care

In 1996, 56% of lone parents were in the labour force. The rate of labour force participation for lone mothers (52%) was lower than that for partnered mothers (63%). The rate for lone fathers (77%), while much higher than that for lone mothers, was

Employment status of parents, 1996(a)



(a) For parents with dependent children, aged 0-14.

Source: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (Cat. no. 6224.0).

Type of child care	Not employed		1-15 hours		16-34 hours		35 hours and over	
	Lone mother	Partnered mother	Lone mother	Partnered mother	Lone mother	Partnered mother	Lone mother	Partnered mother
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Formal only	9.9	15.7	7.2	16.3	12.9	15.1	15.8	15.2
Informal only	1.4	20.1	47.6	31.1	45.3	35.7	46.0	38.3
Both formal and informal	8.5	8.4	17.6	15.4	25.2	19.8	26.2	16.4
No care used	50.2	55.8	27.6	37.1	16.6	29.3	12.1	30.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	167.8	663.5	38.8	244.5	30.8	307.1	33.2	244.5

(a) Includes mothers whose youngest child was aged 0-11.

Source: Child Care Survey (unpublished data).

nevertheless lower than the rate for partnered fathers (94%).

As the age of their youngest child increased, both lone mothers and partnered mothers were more likely to be in the labour force, and differences in the rate of labour force participation between the two groups decreased. For mothers whose youngest child was aged 0-4, 36% of lone mothers compared to 49% of partnered mothers were in the labour force. For mothers whose youngest child was aged 15-24 there was little difference in the corresponding rates (71% and 72%, respectively).

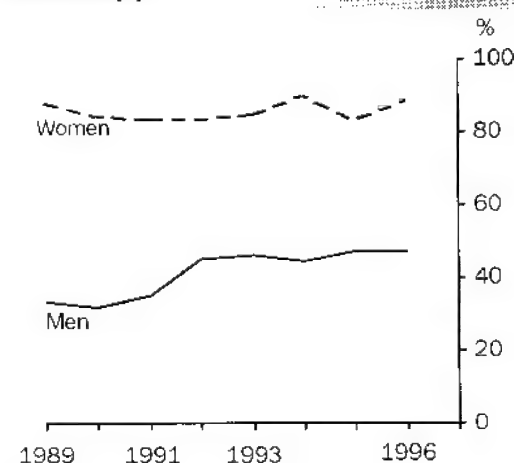
Of lone parents who were in the labour force, 84% were employed, and nearly 41% of these

were employed part time. The unemployment rate for lone mothers (17%) was much higher than that for lone fathers (9%).

Lone parents tend to rely on family and friends if they are not able to care for children themselves. The 1996 Child Care Survey found that 46% of employed lone parents with children aged 0-11 (47,700) used only informal care, compared to 35% of partnered mothers. Among lone mothers who were not in paid employment, 31% used only informal child-care arrangements.

The use of formal child care by lone mothers depended on the hours they worked. Lone mothers working part time were less likely to use formal child care than partnered mothers. However, differences decreased as the number of working hours increased. For those working 35 hours per week or more, there was little difference in formal child-care arrangements between the two groups (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Child care, pp. 47-49).

Lone parents on Sole Parent Pension(a)



(a) Lone parents with youngest dependant aged 0-15.

Source: Department of Social Security (unpublished data), Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

Sole Parent Pension

Lone parents with children up to the age of 16 are eligible for Sole Parent Pension. In June 1996, 89% of lone mothers and 47% of lone fathers with children of qualifying ages were receiving Sole Parent Pension. Since the payment became available in its current form in 1989, the proportion of lone mothers receiving Sole Parent Pension has fluctuated between 84% and 90% while the proportion of lone fathers receiving the payment has risen from 33% to 47%.

Of the 342,000 parents currently receiving Sole Parent Pension in June 1996, 30% had

Recipients	Duration of payment					Total		Median duration
	Under 6 months	6-12 months	1-2 years	2-5 years	5 years and over			
	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000	years
All lone parents receiving payment at 30 June 1996								
Women	16.7	12.5	17.9	28.8	24.0	100.0	320.0	2.3
Men	25.8	16.8	20.1	25.6	11.6	100.0	21.9	1.4
Persons	17.3	12.8	18.1	28.6	23.2	100.0	342.0	2.1
Lone parents who stopped receiving the Sole Parent Pension during 1995								
Women	31.1	17.0	17.8	20.7	13.3	100.0	..	1.1
Men	42.5	20.3	16.5	15.6	5.2	100.0	..	0.8
Persons	32.2	17.3	17.7	20.2	12.6	100.0	127.3	1.0

Source: Department of Social Security (unpublished data).

received the payment for less than one year, but over one half had received the pension for more than two years. Only 23% had received payments for five years or more. Compared to lone mothers, lone fathers were less likely to stay on the payment for a long time.

Lone parents may move on and off Sole Parent Pension a number of times, depending on income and living arrangements. For a large proportion of lone parents, the period of time they are in receipt of the payment for a continuous interval is quite short.

Of the 127,300 lone parents who went off Sole Parent Pension during 1995, almost one third (32%) had been on the payment for less than six months, and a similar proportion (35%) had been receiving payments for between six months and two years. Only 13% had received payments for five years or more.

Government support

Lone parents with children aged 0-15 can receive Sole Parent Pension and Guardian Allowance. Like other pensioners, they can also receive a range of fringe benefits, including Rent Assistance. As for all parents with dependent children, they can also receive the Family Payment and the Family Tax Payment. All of these payments are means tested.

To ensure that only those entitled to Sole Parent Pension receive the payment, the circumstances of sole parent pensioners are reviewed by the Department of Social Security at 4, 8 and 12 weeks after grant, and every 12 weeks thereafter.

Sole parent pensioners are required to take reasonable action to obtain child support from the other parent.

Work force transition assistance through the Jobs, Education and Training (JET) program is available to sole parent pensioners and some other social security recipients.

Health

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HEALTH STATUS

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Despite 91% of people aged 15 years and over reporting some recent illness or long-term health condition, 83% assessed their health as being good, very good or excellent.

Protecting the health of our children	49
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A variety of health actions can be taken to protect the health of our children. In 1995, 19% of children had recently consulted a doctor, 53% had had both sight and hearing checks and most were immunised against polio, measles and mumps.

MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

Infectious diseases	54
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Between 1921 and 1995, death rates from infectious diseases fell from 185 to 6 per 100,000 population. Diseases such as diphtheria, polio, tetanus and tuberculosis are now rare in Australia, and seldom fatal.

Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome	60
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Since the early 1980s to September 1996, around 16,000 people had been diagnosed with HIV, 7,000 had been diagnosed with AIDS and over 5,100 people had died from AIDS-related illnesses.

Health — national summary



HEALTH STATUS	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Male life expectancy at birth	years	72.3	72.8	73.0	73.1	73.3	73.9	74.4	74.5	75.0	75.0	75.0
Female life expectancy at birth	years	78.8	79.1	79.5	79.5	79.6	80.1	80.4	80.4	80.9	80.9	80.8
Total number of deaths	'000	118.8	115.0	117.3	119.9	124.2	120.1	119.1	123.7	121.6	126.7	125.1
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	7.5	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.4	7.0	6.9	7.1	6.9	7.1	6.9
Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	8.2	7.6	7.6	7.5	7.6	7.2	6.9	6.9	6.6	6.7	6.5
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	no.	10.0	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.0	8.2	7.1	7.0	6.1	5.9	5.7
Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined)	no.	11.8	11.5	10.6	10.7	9.9	10.3	9.6	9.4	8.2	8.0	8.1

CAUSES OF DEATH	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Ischaemic heart disease standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	225	213	208	199	200	186	175	177	162	161	151
Cancer standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	186	182	180	184	183	181	181	181	180	181	178
Motor vehicle traffic accident standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	19	19	17	19	17	15	13	12	11	11	11
Suicide standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	12	13	14	13	13	13	14	13	12	13	13
AIDS-related standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.0	2.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

RISK FACTORS	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Alcohol: apparent consumption per person per day	mls	31.5	31.8	30.4	r30.7	r30.2	r29.9	r28.6	r28.1	r26.5	r27.3	r27.0
Tobacco: apparent consumption per person per day	grams	6.7	6.5	6.1	6.0	5.7	5.8	5.4	5.4	4.8	4.4	4.2
Total fats: apparent consumption per person per day	grams	57.5	57.4	56.3	55.8	55.4	54.5	53.7	53.7	52.2	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
Fully immunised children aged 3 months to 6 years (of all children 3 months to 6 years)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	54.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	52.1

SERVICES	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Average Medicare services processed per person	no.	7.1	7.5	7.8	8.0	8.3	8.3	8.2	8.6	9.8	r10.1	10.4
Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population	no.	5.8	5.7	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.0	5.0	4.5	4.4	4.2	p4.3
Average length of stay in hospital	days	6.7	6.5	6.3	6.2	5.9	5.6	5.1	4.8	4.8	4.7	p4.2
Doctors (per 100,000 population)	no.	n.a.	210	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	230	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

EXPENDITURE	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Persons with private health insurance (of population)	%	47.7	48.8	48.3	47.0	45.5	44.5	43.7	41.0	39.5	37.2	r34.9
Total health expenditure per person per year (1989-90 prices)	\$	1458	1521	1571	r1603	1661	1700	1714	r1743	r1791	r1837	p1890
Total health expenditure as a proportion of GDP	%	r7.6	r7.7	r8.0	r7.8	7.7	7.8	r8.2	r8.6	r8.6	r8.5	p8.4

Reference periods:

Risk factor data, services data except doctors per 100,000 population, and expenditure data are for the year ended 30 June.

Health — State summary

HEALTH STATUS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Male life expectancy at birth	years	1995	74.8	75.4	75.1	75.1	75.2	73.9	68.5	76.2	75.0
Female life expectancy at birth	years	1995	80.8	81.0	81.0	81.0	81.2	79.9	74.0	81.6	80.8
Total number of deaths	'000	1995	44.8	32.4	20.7	11.2	10.4	3.8	0.8	1.1	125.1
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	1995	7.3	7.2	6.3	7.6	6.0	7.9	4.7	3.7	6.9
Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	1995	6.6	6.5	6.2	6.3	6.2	7.1	9.9	5.4	6.5
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	no.	1995	5.7	4.9	6.3	5.8	5.1	5.8	13.3	4.8	5.7
Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live birth and fetal deaths combined)	no.	1995	7.9	7.7	8.9	8.3	7.8	8.0	14.0	8.1	8.1

CAUSES OF DEATH	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Ischaemic heart disease standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1995	157	146	153	147	145	159	129	116	151
Cancer standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1995	176	188	166	171	175	197	210	168	178
Road accident standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1995	10	10	14	11	12	13	31	7	11
Suicide standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1995	12	12	15	14	13	14	15	12	13
AIDS-related standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1995	6	3	2	2	2	**	**	**	4

RISK FACTORS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
High-risk drinkers (of persons 18 years and over)	%	1995	3.0	2.9	3.6	3.0	3.1	2.8	7.2	4.2	3.1
Current smokers (of persons 18 years and over)	%	1995	23.3	23.1	25.3	22.7	23.0	25.5	32.4	22.8	23.7
Acceptable weight (of person 18 years and over)	%	1995	49.8	49.8	51.0	46.9	51.2	49.6	47.3	55.6	50.0
Fully immunised children aged 3 months to 6 years (of all children 3 months to 6 years)	%	1995	53.9	51.2	47.5	49.7	59.3	43.0	53.5	63.5	52.1

SERVICES	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Average Medicare services processed per person	- no.	1994-95	11.5	10.3	10.1	9.8	9.3	9.3	6.3	8.8	10.4
Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population	no.	1994-95	p4.1	p4.1	p4.5	p4.9	p4.2	p4.4	p4.0	p3.3	p4.3
Average length of stay in hospital	days	1994-95	p4.2	p4.1	p4.2	p4.8	p4.1	p4.8	p4.4	p3.8	p4.2
Doctors (per 100,000 population)	no.	1991	239	235	212	256	206	204	210	238	230

EXPENDITURE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Persons with private health insurance (of population)(a)	%	1995	37.2	r34.2	31.3	34.3	37.3	37.3	13.8	n.a.	r34.9

(a) The Australian Capital Territory is included in New South Wales. The Northern Territory figure is understated because some funds include Northern Territory members in other States.

Health — definitions and references

- Acceptable weight** — the estimates are based on Querelet's body mass index (BMI), which is calculated as weight (in kilograms) divided by the square of height (in metres). Persons classified as acceptable weight had a BMI of 20.0–25.0.
Reference: *National Health Survey: Health Risk Factors* (Cat. no. 4380.0).
- Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population** — total number of beds in all hospitals (public and private) per 1,000 estimated mean resident population.
Reference: *Private Hospitals, Australia* (Cat. no. 4390.0); Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, National Public Hospital Establishments Database (unpublished data).
- Age-standardised death rate** — the overall death rate that would have prevailed in a standard population if it had experienced at each age the death rates of the population being studied. The standard population used is the 1991 Australian population.
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).
- AIDS-related deaths** — deaths where AIDS was determined to be the underlying cause.
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).
- Alcohol: apparent consumption** — millilitres of pure alcohol (not total alcoholic beverages) consumed, divided by the population 15 and over. Apparent consumption of beer and spirits is based on the quantities on which excise duty was paid, and imports cleared for consumption. Apparent consumption of wine comprises quantities sold by winemakers and imports cleared for consumption. Home-made beer and wine are included.
Reference: *Apparent Consumption of Foodstuffs and Nutrients, Australia* (Cat. no. 4306.0).
- Apparent consumption** — equals (commercial production + estimated home production + imports + opening stocks) minus (exports + usage for processed food + non-food usage + wastage + closing stocks) divided by the population.
Reference: *Apparent Consumption of Foodstuffs and Nutrients, Australia* (Cat. no. 4306.0).
- Average length of stay in hospital** — the total number of occupied bed days in both public and private hospitals divided by the total number of separations.
Reference: *Private Hospitals, Australia* (Cat. no. 4390.0); Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, National Public Hospital Establishments Database (unpublished data).
- Average Medicare services processed** — average number of services processed per Australian resident.
Reference: Health Insurance Commission, *Annual Report 1994–95*.
- Cancer** — malignant neoplasms.
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).
- Crude death rate** — number of deaths registered during the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year. For years prior to 1994, it is based on the mean estimated resident population for the calendar year.
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).
- Current smokers** — persons aged 18 years and over who smoke one or more manufactured (packet) cigarettes, roll-your-own cigarettes, cigars or pipes per day. Smoking excludes chewing tobacco and smoking of non-tobacco products.
Reference: *National Health Survey: Health Risk Factors* (Cat. no. 4380.0).
- Doctors per 100,000 population** — the number of general and specialist medical practitioners per 100,000 estimated mean resident population.
Reference: *Characteristics of Persons Employed in Health Occupations, Australia* (Cat. no. 4346.0).
- Fetal death** — the delivery of a child weighing at least 500 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 22 weeks gestation) which did not, at any time after delivery, breathe or show any other evidence of life such as a heart beat.
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).
- Fully immunised** — the proportion of children reported as having received all the required vaccinations for diphtheria, tetanus, poliomyelitis, whooping cough, measles and mumps for their age. The required vaccinations are based on the 1986 NH&MRC Standard Childhood Vaccination Schedule.
Reference: *Children's Immunisation, Australia* (Cat. no. 4352.0).
- High risk drinkers** — men aged 18 and over who drank more than 75ml of absolute alcohol per day and women aged 18 and over who drank more than 50ml of absolute alcohol per day.
Reference: *National Health Survey: Health Risk Factors* (Cat. no. 4380.0).
- Infant mortality rate** — the annual number of deaths of children under one year of age per 1,000 live births.
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).
- Ischaemic heart disease** — heart attack (acute myocardial infarction, coronary occlusion) and angina (angina pectoris).
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).
- Life expectancy at birth** — the average number of years a person might expect to live if the age-specific death rates of the given period continued throughout his or her lifetime.
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).
- Live birth** — the delivery of a child weighing at least 500 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 22 weeks gestation) who after being born, breathed or showed any other evidence of life such as a heart beat.
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).
- Motor vehicle traffic accident**
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).
- Neonatal death** — any child weighing at least 500 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 22 weeks gestation) who was born alive (as defined under live birth) and who died within 28 days of birth.
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Perinatal mortality rate - - the number of fetal and neonatal deaths per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined.

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Persons with private health insurance — proportion of the total population with private basic hospital insurance.

Reference: Private Health Insurance Administration Council, *Annual Report 1995-96*.

Suicide

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Tobacco: apparent consumption — grams of tobacco consumed divided by the population aged 15 and over. Apparent consumption of tobacco is based on the quantity on which import duty and excise was paid and does not include duty or excise-free tobacco.

Reference: Foreign Trade Microfiche MF14.

Total fats: apparent consumption — the total fat content of food apparently consumed, in grams, divided by the total population.

Reference: *Apparent Consumption of Foodstuffs and Nutrients, Australia* (Cat. no. 4306.0).

Total health expenditure as a proportion of GDP — total health expenditure as a proportion of gross domestic product, in current prices.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Health Expenditure Bulletin*.

Total health expenditure per person — total health expenditure per person in Australian dollars at constant 1989-90 prices.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Health Expenditure Bulletin*.

Health of the population

HEALTH STATUS

Despite around 91% of people aged 15 and over reporting some recent illness or long-term health conditions, 83% assessed their health as good, very good or excellent.

Health is a crucial component of an individual's overall social well-being. Health can be seen as a positive state of both physical and mental well-being. It is sometimes measured as such, using indicators which cover the positive aspect. These indicators include self-assessed health status. However, the health of individuals and groups is also reflected, and more often measured, in terms of ill health and ultimately mortality. For society illness and disease represent a major expense through lost productivity and the costs of treatment. For the individual, they affect one's ability to work, pursue leisure activities and participate fully in society.

Cause of death

Of all statistics relating to health, mortality statistics are the most comprehensive and have been recorded over the longest time. Australian mortality rates are low by international standards and continue to fall. This decline is mainly due to advances in medical technology and the leading of healthier life styles through better diet, regular exercise and reductions in tobacco and alcohol consumption. Between 1985 and 1995 the standardised death rate fell from 816 deaths per 100,000 people to 646 deaths per 100,000 people. Declines were recorded for most leading causes of death. The most sizeable fall was in deaths from cardiovascular diseases. Ischaemic heart disease, stroke and

Health status indicators

Self-assessed health status refers to the overall level of health reported by people aged 15 and over.

Recent illness conditions refer to conditions (illness, injury or disability) experienced in the two weeks prior to interview. They may include long-term conditions experienced in the period.

Long-term illness conditions refer to medical conditions which have lasted at least six months or which the respondent expects to last for six months or more.

Health actions during the two weeks prior to interview refer to activities related to a person's health such as visiting a doctor, taking medication, or changing daily routines in response to a health condition.

arterial diseases each declined by over 30% in the ten-year period.

Self-assessed health status

A person's perception of their own general health status is considered a good measure of an individual's current physical and mental health, and a predictor of mortality of people aged 60 and over¹.

In 1995, 83% of people aged 15 years and over reported that their health was good, very

Age-standardised(a) death rates

Leading cause of death	1985			1995		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate
Cancer	246	145	186	232	139	178
Ischaemic heart disease	311	160	225	204	109	151
Stroke	97	91	95	68	60	63
Respiratory diseases	104	40	64	70	35	48
Accidents	51	21	36	35	15	25
Diseases of arteries and capillaries	29	18	23	21	11	15
Diabetes mellitus	15	12	13	17	12	14
Suicide	19	5	12	21	5	13
All deaths	1 059	633	816	826	505	646

(a) Standardised death rate per 100,000 of the 1991 population (see p. 42 for explanation of age standardisation).

Source: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0 and unpublished data).

good or excellent. This proportion was similar for both men and women but declined with age. However, even among those aged 75 or more, over half (59%) reported their health as good, very good or excellent. Furthermore, despite around 91% of people aged 15 and over reporting some recent illness or long term health conditions, 83% assessed their health as good, very good or excellent.

Recent illness

In 1995, 70% of the population reported experiencing a recent illness. Many of these were minor ailments. Headaches were the most commonly reported specific recent condition, experienced by 11% of males and 15% of females. Other frequently reported illness conditions were arthritis (8.5%) and hypertension (8.3%).

The types of illness experienced varied by age. Colds were more prevalent among children and these rates declined with age. Headaches peaked within the 25–44 age group and then declined in older age groups. Conversely, arthritis and hypertension had very low prevalence rates up until the mid 40s but then increased rapidly with age. Despite their lower levels of mortality, women were more likely than men to experience a recent illness. While this partly reflects their older age profile, women also reported higher rates of illness than men in most age groups.

Recent illness, 1995p

Selected illness	Males	Females	Total
	%	%	%
Headache	10.8	15.4	13.1
Arthritis	6.7	10.2	8.5
Hypertension	7.2	9.3	8.3
Asthma	6.2	6.8	6.5
Common cold	5.3	5.9	5.6
Back problems	3.6	3.4	3.5
Influenza	3.1	3.1	3.1
Cough or sore throat	2.5	3.1	2.8
Hayfever	2.6	3.0	2.8
Total who experienced a recent illness(a)	65.7	73.8	69.7

(a) Includes people who suffered other illness conditions. People may report more than one illness, however they are only counted once in the total.

Source: 1995 National Health Survey: First Results (Cat. no. 4392.0).

Selected conditions	Males	Females	Total
	%	%	%
Eye problems(a)	42.4	51.9	47.2
Arthritis	11.6	17.6	14.6
Hayfever	12.9	14.5	13.7
Asthma	10.7	11.4	11.1
Hypertension	9.5	10.9	10.2
Sinusitis	8.1	11.9	10.0
Ear or hearing problems	12.1	6.8	9.4
Allergy	4.6	6.7	5.7
Total reporting long-term conditions(b)	72.7	76.4	74.6

(a) Includes eye problems which can be corrected by glasses.

(b) Includes other long-term illness conditions. Components do not add to total as people may report more than one long-term illness condition.

Source: 1995 National Health Survey: First Results (Cat. no. 4392.0 and unpublished data).

Long-term conditions

In 1995, 75% of people reported a long-term health condition. The majority of these people also reported a recent illness.

Sight disorders, (many of which are corrected by glasses), were the most frequently occurring long-term condition, affecting 47% of the population. If sight disorders were excluded, the proportion of people reporting long-term conditions would fall to 64%. The next most frequently reported conditions were arthritis, hay fever and asthma.

Many long-term health conditions are minor and are able to be managed so they do not impact greatly on the quality of life. This may explain why 81% of people aged 15 and over reporting a long-term health condition also assessed their overall level of health as good, very good or excellent.

As with recent illnesses, some long-term conditions such as sight problems and arthritis increased with age while asthma was more common among children.

Again women were more likely than men to report long-term conditions, although men were nearly twice as likely as women to have hearing problems. While the likelihood of hearing loss increased with age, the higher rates for men may have been a consequence

of their working life and associated working conditions.²

Health risk factors

A large number of life style and environmental factors are now recognised as increasing the risk of ill health. Some of the main risk factors include smoking, alcohol consumption, obesity and sun exposure.

Tobacco smoking has been described by the World Health Organisation (WHO) as the single greatest cause of disease in developed countries³. Health risks associated with smoking include cardiovascular disease, cancer, emphysema, bronchitis, stroke and thrombosis. In 1995, people who currently smoked were more than twice as likely to suffer from bronchitis or emphysema as those who had never smoked (8% compared to 3%).

Health risks associated with obesity include conditions such as heart disease, high blood

pressure and diabetes. In 1995, people who had an obese body mass index were nearly three times more likely to suffer from hypertension than those with a normal body mass index (29% compared to 10%). In addition, they were twice as likely to have high cholesterol as those with a normal body mass index (12% compared to 6%).

Participating in regular physical exercise and eating a balanced diet reduces the risk of cardiovascular disease and other medical conditions such as osteoporosis and diabetes. Education on the benefits of regular exercise, eating a balanced diet and health risk factors has, in part, led to a decrease in mortality and the incidence of many diseases.

Between 1989-90 and 1995 the proportion of people aged 18 and over who smoked fell from 28% to 24% and the proportion of those consuming alcohol decreased from 63% to 56%. Also, in the same period, the proportion of people with an overweight or obese body mass fell from 37% to 32%. The extent of this may, however, be less than the frequencies indicate, as a greater proportion of people responding to the 1995 health survey did not state their body mass (4% in 1989-90, compared to 9% in 1995).

Between 1989-90 and 1995 the proportion of people aged 18 and over who exercised at a medium or high level increased from 32% to 37%, although the number of people who did no exercise also increased from 36% to 40%.

Selected health risk factors, people aged 18 years and over

Health risk factors	1989-90	1995p
	%	%
Body mass		
Underweight	11.8	8.9
Acceptable weight	48.2	50.0
Overweight	27.8	23.7
Obese	8.7	8.2
Not stated	3.5	9.1
Smoker status		
Smoker	28.4	23.7
Ex-smoker	23.2	27.4
Never smoked	48.4	49.0
Alcohol risk level		
Did not consume alcohol	37.5	44.3
Total who consumed alcohol	62.5	55.7
Low	51.4	47.4
Medium	6.8	5.1
High	4.3	3.1
Exercise level		
Did not exercise	35.8	39.8
Low exercise level	32.2	23.0
Medium exercise level	16.6	17.3
High exercise level	15.4	19.9

Source: 1995 National Health Survey: First Results (Cat. no. 4392.0).

Health-related actions

When people are ill or have some underlying health condition they may take a range of actions including consulting doctors or other health professionals (such as chemists, opticians or chiropractors); and taking medication or time off work. Health actions can also be taken for preventative reasons such as regular dental check-ups.

In 1995, 75% of people took a recent health action in the two weeks prior to the interview. Almost 70% took some form of medication including 30% taking vitamins, minerals or other natural or herbal medicines, and 24% taking pain relievers. 23% of people consulted a doctor.

Older people were more likely than younger people to have taken a recent health action. This was especially the case when consulting a doctor or taking medication. 88% of people aged 55 and over took medication compared to 73% of those aged 35-54, 65% of those aged 15-34, and 51% of those aged 0-14.

Table 1. Health actions taken, 1995

Selected actions	Male	Female	Total
	%	%	%
Used medication	63.5	74.1	68.8
Vitamins/minerals(a)	24.5	34.9	29.8
Other medications	54.2	64.0	59.1
Consulted doctor	20.4	26.1	23.3
Consulted dentist	5.3	5.9	5.6
Consulted other health professionals	8.4	11.5	9.9
Days off work/school	7.6	7.5	7.5
Other days of reduced activity	7.3	7.2	7.3
Total who took action(b)	70.3	80.1	75.3

(a) Includes herbal or natural medicine.

(b) Includes other health actions. Components do not add to total as people may undertake more than one type of action.

Source: 1995 National Health Survey: First Results (Cat. no. 4392.0 and unpublished data).

Also, 35% of people aged 55 and over consulted a doctor compared to about 20% of those aged under 55.

Consistent with their higher rates of recent illness and long-term conditions women were more likely than men to visit the doctor or consult other health professionals as well as take medication.

1 McCallum, J. et al. 'Self-rated health and survival: a 7-year follow-up study of Australian elderly', *American Journal of Public Health*, Vol. 84, 1994, pp. 1100-5.

2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1993, *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Hearing Impairment*, Cat. no. 4435.0. ABS, Canberra.

3 Department of Community Services and Health 1988, *Health for All Australians: Report of the Health Targets and Implementation Committee to Australian Health Ministers*, AGPS, Canberra.

Protecting the health of our children

HEALTH STATUS

A variety of health actions can be taken to protect the health of our children. In 1995, 19% of children had recently consulted a doctor, 53% had had both sight and hearing checks and most were immunised against polio, measles and mumps.

By world standards, most Australian children enjoy good health. Medicare and other government services have made health care more accessible and affordable for most Australians. Also, many childhood diseases can now be successfully treated or prevented.

The health of children is influenced by a wide range of social, cultural, physical and economic factors. Children are particularly vulnerable because they are dependent on their families, communities and governments to ensure that their health needs are met.

Health initiatives of communities and governments to protect the health of our children include education on the benefits of breastfeeding, good nutrition and hygiene and by assisting in the provision of adequate housing. Other initiatives include minimising negative environmental influences such as reducing environmental lead levels and providing guidelines to reduce sun exposure among children.

Health actions taken by carers also influence the health of our children. These include the use of preventive services such as dental and

Child health

In this review *children* are people aged less than 15 years.

Infants are children aged less than one year.

Recent health actions refer to activities such as visiting a doctor, taking medication (vitamins, minerals, herbal, natural, prescribed or other medication) in the two weeks prior to interview.

Health screening refers to testing of sight and hearing, consultations with dental professionals and visits to baby health clinics.

immunisation services, and providing or obtaining appropriate treatment when a child is ill.

Despite overall improvements in child health, significant inequalities still exist. The health status of Indigenous children¹, and children from other economically disadvantaged backgrounds remain far below that of the general Australian population².

Children from low socio-economic backgrounds, compared with children from higher socio-economic backgrounds, are the major users of medical services such as hospitals and doctors. Conversely, they are the lowest users of preventive services such as dentists and immunisation clinics³.

Health actions

In 1995, 61% of children had undertaken a recent health action. The most common type of health action was the use of medication (51%). The next most common type of health action was consulting a doctor (19%). The likelihood of having taken a recent health action was similar for boys and girls.

Children aged 0-4 were more likely to have taken a recent health action than children aged 5-14 (64% compared to 60%). The specific types of health actions taken also varied by age. While the occurrence was very low, children aged 0-4 were three times more likely to have stayed in hospital as an inpatient, compared to those aged 5-14 (1.2% compared to 0.4%). 29% of children aged 0-4 consulted a doctor, compared to 16% of those aged 5-9 and 12% of those aged 10-14.

Recent health actions, 1995

Type of recent health action(a)	Age group (years)			
	0-4	5-9	10-14	Total
	%	%	%	%
No health action taken	35.7	40.1	40.3	38.7
Health action taken(b)	64.3	59.9	59.7	61.3
Hospital inpatient	1.2	0.3	0.4	0.6
Visited casualty/outpatients	2.7	1.8	1.9	2.1
Doctor consulted	29.0	16.1	11.5	18.9
Dentist consulted	1.2	7.8	10.6	6.5
Used medication(c)	53.9	49.5	48.6	50.7
Total children	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(a) Health actions taken in the two weeks prior to the survey interview.

(b) Components do not add to total because children may have undertaken more than one type of health action.

(c) Includes vitamins, minerals, herbal, natural, prescribed or other medication.

Source: 1995 National Health Survey: First Results (Cat. no. 4392.0 and unpublished data).

Immunisation

Immunisation programs for children are recognised as an effective public health intervention. Because of mass immunisation programs, infectious diseases such as diphtheria, whooping cough and polio are no longer major causes of death and disability in Australia.

Immunisation schedules are periodically reviewed and updated by the National Health and Medical Research Council to provide better protection to individuals and the community. For example, between 1989-90 and 1995 three major changes were made. The DTP vaccination (diphtheria, tetanus, whooping cough) replaced the CDT vaccination (combined diphtheria tetanus) for children prior to school entry. Also, a combined measles, mumps and rubella vaccination and vaccination for *Haemophilus influenzae type b* (Hib) were introduced.

In statistical terms changes to the schedule impact on the measured rate of children fully immunised. Additions to the schedule tend to lower this rate. Care therefore needs to be taken in examining falls in immunisation rates over time to determine whether the fall represents a real decline as opposed to a decline resulting from a change in the schedule.

Between 1989-90 and 1995 the proportion of children aged three months to six years who were fully immunised against all diseases appeared to fall from 54% to 33%. However, if changes to the previous Standard Childhood Vaccination Schedule were taken into

Cases of notifiable diseases reported

Disease	1985	1990(a)	1995
	no.	no.	no.
Rubella	n.a.	620	4 380
Whooping cough	587	862	4 297
Measles	n.a.	880	1 324
Mumps	n.a.	n.a.	153
Hib	n.a.	549	74
Tetanus	11	6	7
Diphtheria	17	7	0
Polio	0	0	0

(a) Cases of Hib and rubella refer to 1991.

Source: Department of Health and Family Services, *Communicable Diseases Intelligence*.

account, the actual fall (down to 52%) would have been relatively small.

Notwithstanding, a recent decline in the level of immunisation against some diseases appears to have contributed to increases in the incidence of disease. This is most evident for whooping cough. Between 1989-90 and 1995 the number of reported cases of whooping cough increased by over 3,000. In the same period the proportion of children immunised against whooping cough fell from 73% to 60%. However adjusting for changes to the previous Standard Childhood Vaccination Schedule for whooping cough increases the 1995 immunisation rate to 67%. This implies a real decline of whooping cough immunisation rates of six percentage points.

Immunisation status	Disease							Total
	Diphtheria/tetanus	Whooping cough	Polio	Measles(b)	Mumps(b)	Rubella(b)	Hib	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Fully immunised(c)	68.6	59.9	82.6	91.6	89.6	75.5	50.2	33.1
Partially immunised(d)	24.2	31.7	10.1	**	**	**	5.5	65.4
Not immunised	1.2	2.2	1.6	6.2	7.6	19.7	31.4	0.4
Not known	6.0	6.2	5.8	2.2	2.9	4.8	13.0	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(a) Based on the current Standard Childhood Vaccination Schedule.

(b) Children aged one year or less were excluded from estimates for measles, mumps and rubella.

(c) Fully immunised refers to the proportion of children receiving all of the required doses for that disease.

(d) Partially immunised refers to the proportion of children receiving at least one but not all of the required doses for that disease.

Source: Children's Immunisation Survey (unpublished data).

Of children aged three months to six years, 65% had received at least one, but not all of the required doses for the diseases listed on the current Standard Childhood Vaccination Schedule and 0.4% had not received any immunisation doses for any of the diseases.

Most children were fully immunised against measles (92%), mumps (90%) and polio (83%). But only 50% of children were immunised against Hib. Hib immunisation levels were low possibly because the vaccine was only introduced to the Standard Childhood Vaccination Schedule in 1993.

The proportion of children who were fully immunised differed between the States and Territories. Children in the Australian Capital Territory were most likely to be fully immunised (48%) followed by those in Western Australia (42%). Tasmania had the lowest proportion of fully-immunised children (27%).

Girls were slightly more likely to be fully immunised than boys (34% compared to 32%). This is because a higher proportion of girls were immunised against rubella (80% compared to 71%), reflecting the perception that the rubella vaccine is required only for girls.

The proportion of children who were fully immunised varied according to a range of socio-economic factors. Children in couple families were more likely to be fully immunised than those in one-parent families. For example, 85% of children from couple families were fully immunised against polio, compared to 69% from one-parent families. Also, children from families who usually speak English at home were more likely to be fully immunised than those who speak a language other than English. In addition, children from low-income families were less likely to be fully immunised than children from high-income

families (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Children's immunisation, pp. 66-69).

Health screening

Child health screening such as testing of sight and hearing, dental consultations and visits to baby health clinics enables preventive measures to be taken to stop or slow further development of a problem.

In 1995, 63% of children had had their sight tested and 66% their hearing tested at some stage in their life. Just over half (53%) had had both sight and hearing tests.

The proportions of girls and boys tested for sight and hearing were much the same. Among children aged 2-14, 75% had had a dental consultation.

Among children aged 0-3 years, 89% had visited a baby health clinic at least once. A slightly higher proportion of girls than boys had visited a baby health clinic (90% compared to 88%). The largest proportions of children who had visited a baby health clinic were in Victoria and the Northern Territory (both 97%) and the lowest proportion was reported in Queensland (73%).

Breastfeeding

Breastfeeding has major health advantages for children. It provides immunological, developmental and psychological benefits as well as providing children with a food high in nutritional content. Breast milk provides all the nutritional needs of a full-term infant for the first 4-6 months of life and remains an important food for the first 12 months. Because of these benefits, the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) set national targets recommending that 90% of infants aged up to two months should be breastfed*.

Type of health screening	Age group (years)				Total	Total
	0-1	2-4	5-9	10-14		
	%	%	%	%	%	'000
Has had sight and hearing tests	28.4	33.7	63.1	63.1	52.6	2 023.0
Sight tests only	4.9	4.7	9.1	16.2	10.0	385.1
Hearing tests only	17.3	22.6	12.0	7.5	13.3	512.7
Has visited a dental professional(a)	n.a.	22.5	85.1	96.6	75.0	2 501.7

(a) Excludes children aged under two years.

Source: *Children's Health Screening* (Cat. no. 4337.0).

Whether children aged one year were breastfed, 1995p

Whether breastfed	Children
	%
Were never breastfed	12.4
Were breastfed	87.6
Less than one week	1.9
Two weeks or more	77.7
Two months or more	68.1
Six months or more	47.1
One year or more	15.3
Unknown duration	2.3
	'000
Total	264.8

Source: 1995 National Health Survey (unpublished data).

Breastfeeding patterns have changed among generations of mothers. While there is some evidence to suggest that most newborns were breastfed before the 1940s⁵, this level declined to about 40–50% in the early 1970s⁶. Since then the levels have increased.

In 1995, 78% of children aged one had been breastfed for two weeks or more, 68% had been breastfed for at least two months and 47% had been breastfed for at least six months.

How long a mother decides to breastfeed varies according to a range of factors. For example, the length of time a mother breastfeeds increases as the mother's level of education increases. Married mothers tend to breastfeed for longer periods than those who are not currently married. In addition, Indigenous mothers and older mothers tend to breastfeed their children for longer periods than non-Indigenous mothers and younger mothers⁶.

Blood lead levels

Over the past 20 years there has been increasing community awareness about the quality of the environment and its effect on children's health. In particular, attention has focused on the effects of lead on the mental development of children aged under four years. Young children tend to have the highest blood lead levels of any age group.

Lead in petrol is a significant source of environmental lead, but deteriorating lead-based paint is considered the most

dangerous source of lead exposure. Other possible sources of lead in the environment are lead in the solder of canned acidic foods, lead released from lead smelters and passively-inhaled cigarette smoke.

Government initiatives to reduce lead levels in the environment include the use of unleaded petrol in Australian vehicles purchased since 1986 and a reduction in the levels of lead in paint. Lead levels in paint have decreased from 50% prior to the 1950s, to a current level of 0.25%. This limit will be reduced to 0.1% in December 1997.

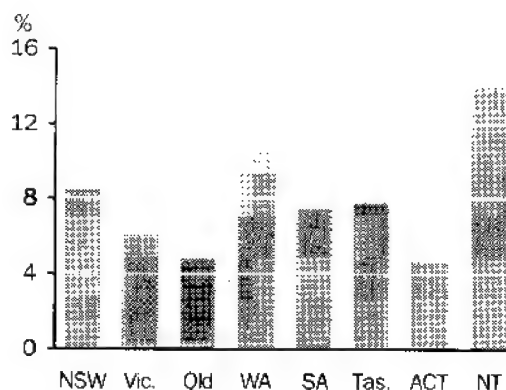
The National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) in 1993, set the national target level of blood lead concentration to less than 0.49 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ (micromole per litre). They also made the reporting of levels greater than 0.72 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ notifiable to State and Territory health authorities⁷.

The National Survey of Lead in Children was conducted in 1995 of children aged 1–4 years. This survey found that 7% (75,500) of the children surveyed had blood lead levels greater than the target set by the NHMRC. 2% (17,500) had blood levels greater than 0.72 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ and were thus notifiable.

The mean blood lead level was higher among younger children and decreased with age. 10% of one year olds had blood lead levels of 0.49 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ or greater compared to 3% of children aged four. There was no difference between the mean blood lead levels of girls and boys.

The mean blood lead level was higher among Indigenous children aged 1–4 than other

Percentage of children aged 1–4 with blood lead levels of 0.49 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ or greater, 1995



Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. *Lead in Australian children, 1996*.

Sun protection measures taken

Measures(a)	Age group (years)			
	0-4	5-9	10-14	Total
	%	%	%	%
No measures taken	15.6	9.5	13.3	12.8
Measures taken(b)	84.4	90.5	86.7	87.2
Hat	76.0	87.0	76.1	79.7
Sunscreen	61.0	67.0	63.2	63.7
Protective clothing	52.6	51.5	44.1	49.4
Sunglasses	16.6	20.0	23.3	19.9
Umbrella	7.1	3.8	2.5	4.5
Sun avoided	34.6	23.1	17.0	24.9
Other	1.6	0.7	0.3	0.8
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total children	1 297	1 289	1 287	3 873

(a) Measures taken in the month prior to the survey interview.

(b) Components do not add to the total because more than one type of sun protection measure may have been taken.

Source: 1995 National Health Survey (unpublished data).

Australian children aged 1-4 (0.36 $\mu\text{mol/L}$) compared to 0.28 $\mu\text{mol/L}$).

The lowest mean blood lead levels among children aged 1-4 were from the Australian Capital Territory (0.22 $\mu\text{mol/L}$). This finding may, in part, be explained by the fact that many of the children in the survey lived in houses constructed after the 1970s, when paint lead concentrations were lower. However there may be other factors such as the general absence of heavy industries. The highest mean blood lead levels were from the Northern Territory (0.32 $\mu\text{mol/L}$) and South Australia (0.30 $\mu\text{mol/L}$).

Sun protection

Sun exposure is a leading cause of skin damage and a major risk factor for skin cancer. Behaviours such as avoiding sun exposure in the middle of the day or using protective clothing and effective sunscreens reduce the risk of skin damage. Government and other organisations have introduced guidelines to reduce sun exposure among children. For example, many schools have introduced hats as a compulsory part of their school uniform.

In 1995, 87% of children had undertaken sun-protection measures in the month prior to interview. The most common sun-protection measure was wearing a hat (80%). This was followed by using sunscreen (64%) and wearing protective clothing (49%).

The type of sun-protection measure undertaken varied according to age. Younger children were more likely than older children to wear protective clothing, and to avoid the sun, while older children were more likely to wear sunglasses. Children aged 5-9 were most likely to take sun-protection measures (91%).

The use of sun-protection measures differed between the States and Territories. In 1995, 97% of those living in Queensland and 95% of children living in the Northern Territory used a sun-protection measure compared to 74% of those in Victoria and 83% of those in South Australia. Moreover, children living in warmer climates, such as Queensland and the Northern Territory, were more likely to use sun-protection measures all year round than children living in other States.

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics and Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 1997, *The Health and Welfare of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples*. Cat. no. 4704.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 1995, *Health Differentials among Australian Children*, Health Monitoring Series No. 3, AGPS, Canberra.
- 3 National Health Strategy. Department of Health Housing and Community Services 1992, *Enough to Make You Sick: How Income and Environment Affect Health*, Research Paper No. 1, National Health Strategy Unit, Melbourne.
- 4 National Health and Medical Research Council 1995, *Dietary Guidelines for Children and Adolescents*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 5 Lund-Adams, M. and Heywood, P. 1995, *Breastfeeding in Australia*, Nutrition Program, University of Queensland, Brisbane.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1996, *Breastfeeding in Australia*, Cat. no. 4394.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 7 National Health and Medical Research Council 1993, *Report on Revision of the Australian Guidelines for Lead in Blood and Lead in Ambient Air*, AGPS, Canberra.

Infectious diseases

MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

Between 1921 and 1995, death rates from infectious diseases fell from 185 to 6 per 100,000 population.

Infectious diseases were a prominent cause of death in Australia from the time of European settlement until the second half of this century. Diseases such as diphtheria, polio, tetanus and tuberculosis are now rare and seldom fatal.

Infectious diseases range in severity from minor conditions such as the common cold, to serious illnesses such as malaria and tuberculosis which sometimes result in death. This review focuses on those infectious diseases which commonly result in serious illness or death.

Although current death rates from infectious diseases are low, surveillance is still necessary to identify, prevent and control outbreaks¹. Much recent public concern has focussed on the need to maintain immunisation levels² (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Protecting the health of our children, pp. 49–53).

Mortality since 1921

In Australia, the general pattern of mortality decline over this century has been the declining significance of infectious diseases and the increasing significance of chronic diseases such as cancer and diseases of the circulatory system, and deaths due to motor vehicle and other accidents.

Between 1921 and 1995, death rates from infectious diseases declined faster than deaths from all causes. Age-standardised death rates from infectious diseases fell from 185 per 100,000 population in 1921 to six in 1995. Over the same period, standardised death rates from all causes fell from 1,567 per

Infectious diseases

An *infectious disease* is one caused by an organism, ranging in size from viruses to parasitic worms. Infectious diseases can be transmitted directly (e.g. through droplet infection) between people or from insects and animals to people, or indirectly (e.g. through contaminated food or water) through the environment. Infection can also result from the pathological growth of organisms already present in a person's body.

ICD-9 refers to the ninth revision of the *International Classification of Diseases*. Chapter One of this classification (*Infectious and Parasitic Diseases*) includes most diseases generally recognised as infectious. However it does not cover all infectious diseases of public health importance in Australia.

Other infectious diseases not covered by this review include HIV infections (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, pp. 60–63), influenza and pneumonia.

For an explanation of medical terms, see p. 58.

100,000 to 645. As a proportion of all deaths, infectious diseases declined from 19% in 1921 to 1% in 1995.

One of the most dramatic declines in death rates has been for tuberculosis. Age-standardised death rates from tuberculosis fell from 75 per 100,000 in 1921 to 0.4 in 1995.

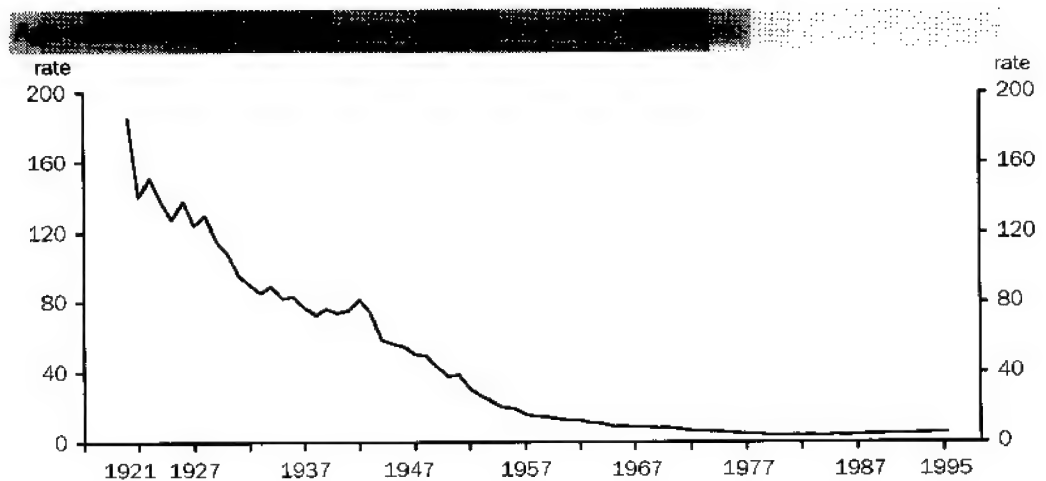
The decline in deaths from infectious diseases has been attributed to a range of social and demographic changes, public health measures and medical advances.

Age-standardised(a) death rates

Cause of death (ICD-9 code)	Age-standardised death rate		Proportion of all deaths	
	1921	1995	1921	1995
	rate	rate	%	%
Infectious diseases (001–139)	185.1	5.5	18.8	0.9
Cancer (140–239)	72.4	180.3	4.2	27.5
Diseases of the circulatory system (390–459)	366.6	270.1	18.4	42.7
All causes	1 566.7	644.7	100.0	100.0

(a) Standardised death rate per 100 000 of the 1991 population (see p. 42 for explanation of age standardisation).

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (unpublished data); *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia* (Cat. no. 3201.0).



(a) Standardised death rate per 100 000 of the 1991 population (see p. 42 for explanation of age standardisation).

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (unpublished data); *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia* (Cat. no. 3201.0).

Current mortality, 1991–95

Of all deaths in the period 1991–95, 1% were due to infectious diseases. As with deaths from all causes, the risk of dying from infectious diseases was higher among infants in the first year of life (7 deaths per 100,000 infants) than for older children and adults aged up to their mid fifties, but increased rapidly among the elderly population.

Death rates from infectious diseases were highest for septicaemia (2.6 per 100,000), viral hepatitis (0.6), and intestinal infections

(0.4). However the risk of death from different types of infectious disease varied by age.

Infants under one year who died from an infectious disease during the period 1991–95 were most likely to die from meningococcal infection (2.4 per 100,000 population), intestinal infection (1.4) or septicaemia (0.9).

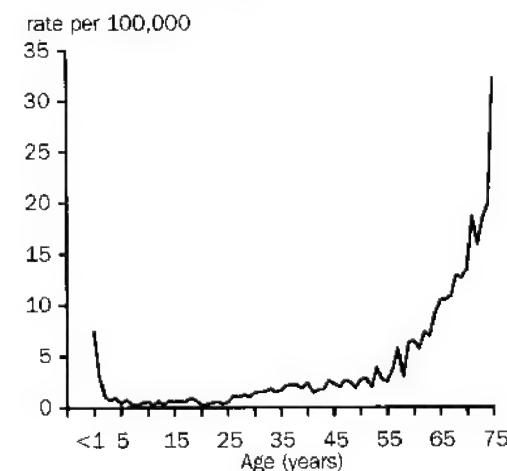
The risk of dying from an infectious disease generally increased with age. Meningococcal infection was one exception to this pattern, with rates generally decreasing with age. The increase in risk with age was most evident for septicaemia. During the period 1991–95, the risk of a person aged 75 and over dying from septicaemia was 44 times higher than for infants in the first year of life, and 12 times higher than for adults aged 55–74. In contrast, the risk of people aged 75 and over dying from viral hepatitis was 12 times higher than an infant dying of this disease, and much the same as for people aged 55–74.

Some population groups experience deaths at rates much higher than the national average. In 1995, age-standardised death rates from infectious diseases were four times higher for Indigenous people than for the total population³.

Notifiable diseases

Notification of many infectious diseases to State and Territory health authorities is required to identify, prevent and control outbreaks⁴. The Communicable Diseases Network — Australia New Zealand, collates

Age-specific death rates(a) from infectious diseases, 1991–95



(a) Rate per 100,000 population aged 0–75.

Source: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0 and unpublished data); *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia* (Cat. no. 3201.0).

Disease or disease category (ICD-9 code)	Age group (years)						
	<1	1-4	5-24	25-54	55-74	75+	Total
	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate
Infectious and parasitic diseases (001-139)	7.3	1.4	0.5	1.9	9.3	60.2	5.4
Intestinal infectious disease (001-009)	1.4	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.5	4.5	0.4
Tuberculosis (010-018)	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.7	2.9	0.3
Meningococcal infection (036)	2.4	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
Septicaemia (038)	0.9	0.1	0.0	0.2	3.5	41.5	2.6
Slow virus infection of central nervous system (046)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.1
Viral hepatitis (070)	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.4	1.7	1.8	0.6
Late effects of tuberculosis (137)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	2.6	0.2
All causes	564.9	34.6	44.7	166.2	1 478.5	8 361.0	708.6
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Infectious diseases as a proportion of all deaths	1.1	4.0	1.1	1.1	0.6	0.8	0.8

(a) Rate per 100,000 population.

Source: Causes of Death, Australia (Cat. no. 3303.0 and unpublished data); Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia (Cat. no. 3201.0).

national data on notifications of infectious diseases.

Notifications data need to be interpreted with caution, because not all diseases are notifiable in each State and Territory. Furthermore, owing to under-reporting, notifications are likely to underestimate the actual incidence (that is, the number of new cases each year) of disease. Despite these limitations, notifications data are the best available estimates of the incidence of various infectious diseases.

Intestinal infections

Diarrhoea is the most common symptom of intestinal tract infections and is caused by a range of different organisms. However, because it is usually in a mild form, people do not always seek medical attention, and it is often unreported.

Worldwide, diarrhoea remains one of the most important causes of ill-health and death among infants and children. In developed countries the incidence is much lower, but still significant. Better hygiene and clean water, as well as increased rates of breastfeeding have all contributed to the decline in the incidence of diarrhoeal disease among infants in Australia. Because many intestinal infections are transmitted through food, the quality of food production and

distribution is an important aspect of prevention.

Vaccine-preventable disease

The incidence of vaccine-preventable diseases has fallen markedly over the century. Notification rates for diphtheria, measles, mumps, whooping cough, polio, rubella, tetanus and tuberculosis have all declined since the early part of this century. One of the most dramatic declines has been for tuberculosis, falling from a peak of 90 cases per 100,000 population in 1918 to 6 in 1995.

The decline in the incidence of polio has been another success of immunisation. Rates fell from a peak of 39 per 100,000 in 1938, to the last notification in 1986 (one notification only).

Global eradication of smallpox was declared by the World Health Organisation in 1980, and the last known natural case (that is, not contracted from laboratory work) of smallpox was in Somalia in 1977². The last notification of smallpox in Australia was in 1921, and of bubonic plague in 1922.

While the incidence of vaccine-preventable diseases has fallen, cases still occur, highlighting the importance of maintaining vaccination programs. In 1995 over 4,000 cases of whooping cough were notified (a rate of 24 per 100,000) (see *Australian Social*

Notification rates of selected(a) infectious diseases, 1995

Disease or disease category	Notification rate(b)
	rate
Intestinal infections	
Campylobacteriosis	91.6
Salmonellosis (NEC)	32.7
Shigellosis	6.1
Yersiniosis (NEC)	2.6
Vaccine-preventable diseases	
Mumps	1.0
Rubella	24.3
Tuberculosis	5.9
Whooping cough	23.8
Mosquito-borne infections	
Arbovirus infection	
Barmah Forest Virus	4.7
Ross River Virus	14.4
Malaria	3.5
Sexually transmitted diseases	
Donovanosis	0.8
Syphilis	10.3
Gonococcal infection	18.1
Hepatitis	
Hepatitis A	8.9
Hepatitis B	1.8
Hepatitis C	7.8
Zoonoses	
Leptospirosis	0.8
Ornithosis	1.5
Q Fever	2.6
Other infectious diseases	
Legionellosis	0.9
Meningococcal infection	2.1

(a) This table contains only those diseases with a notification rate of at least 0.5 per 100,000 population in 1995. It should be noted that rates for some diseases vary considerably from year to year.

(b) Rate per 100,000 population. When a disease is not notifiable in all States and Territories, the population of only those States and Territories in which the disease is notifiable, was used in calculating rates.

Source: Department of Health and Family Services
Communicable Diseases Intelligence, Vol. 20 No. 21,
October 1996.

Trends 1997, Protecting the health of our children, pp. 49-53).

Mosquito-borne infections

Malaria was endemic in northern Australia early this century. The last epidemic was in the Northern Territory in 1962, and Australia was declared malaria free by the World Health Organisation in 1981. However, the number of imported cases has risen steadily since then. In 1995, the notification rate for malaria was 3.5 per 100,000. It is possible that malaria may in the future become re-established in the north of Australia, because mosquitoes capable of transmitting the virus to humans are present there.

Other mosquito-borne infections of public health significance in Australia include the arbovirus infections: dengue, Ross River and Barmah Forest viruses. Notification rates for these infections in 1995 were 0.2, 14, and 5 per 100,000 respectively.

Sexually transmitted diseases (STDs)

The incidence of gonococcal infection (which includes gonorrhoea) and syphilis has fallen since the early part of this century. Furthermore, developments in treatment have led to vastly improved outcomes for people infected with STDs.

The peak notification rate of gonococcal infection occurred in 1917 with 315 notifications per 100,000, falling to 183 in 1928. 18 cases of gonococcal infection per 100,000 population were notified in 1995.

Syphilis notification rates are available for the periods between 1917 and 1929, and 1968-69 to 1995. The peak notification rate was in 1920 at 173 notifications per 100,000. Ten cases per 100,000 were notified in 1995.

Rates of both gonococcal infection and syphilis increased in the 1970s and declined in the late 1980s. Some of this decline may be due to changes in sexual behaviour associated with the public health education campaign against HIV/AIDS infection. However, notification rates for some other STDs including HIV/AIDS and chlamydia have increased over recent years, although the incidence of HIV infection now appears to have peaked (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, pp. 60-63).

Hepatitis

Hepatitis means inflammation of the liver and results from a range of causes, including viruses, bacteria and protozoa, as well as drugs and toxins. Hepatitis A, B and C are the most common forms of viral hepatitis in Australia.

Hepatitis A is the most common, and generally least serious, form of viral hepatitis. It is usually transmitted through infected food or water. Notification rates fell from a peak of 123 per 100,000 in 1961 to 9 in 1995.

Hepatitis B is generally transmitted by blood transfusion, sharing of needles, intimate personal contact (especially sexual), or from mother to baby. Hepatitis B is usually more serious than hepatitis A, and some people become chronic carriers after recovery. Hepatitis B notifications increased from 0.7 per 100,000 in 1971 to 1.8 in 1995. Some of this increase may be due to improved diagnosis.

Hepatitis C was first identified in 1990. It is the most common form of hepatitis transmitted by blood transfusion, but can also be transmitted by sharing needles. People infected with this virus do not always have symptoms. However about 50% of people with acute hepatitis C develop chronic hepatitis. Notifications data for hepatitis C are not considered to be a reliable guide to incidence (that is, the number of new cases in a year). The incidence of hepatitis C was estimated at 8 cases per 100,000 in 1995.

Serious long-term complications such as cirrhosis and liver cancer can develop from infection by hepatitis virus, particularly from types B and C.

Zoonoses

Notifications of cases of the following zoonotic diseases (that is, diseases which can be transmitted from animals to humans) were received in 1995: brucellosis (0.2 cases per 100,000), hydatid infection (0.3), leptospirosis (0.8), ornithosis (1.5), and Q fever (2.6).

A recent case of a zoonotic infection by a previously unknown agent was transmission of equine morbillivirus from horses to humans in Queensland, resulting in two human deaths⁶. Another newly identified virus (lyssavirus) has since been found in fruit bats in Queensland, and one human death has resulted from infection by this virus⁷.

Medical terms

Brucellosis is a bacterial zoonotic infection, usually transmitted to humans by contact with infected animals or animal products.

Campylobacteriosis is a bacterial intestinal infection (generally food-borne).

Donovanosis is a sexually transmitted disease caused by bacterial infection of calymmatobacterium.

Intestinal infectious disease refers to any infection of the intestinal tract.

Leptospirosis is a bacterial zoonotic infection transmissible to humans from a wide range of wild and domestic animals.

Meningitis refers to inflammation of the meninges (the membranes that envelop the brain and spinal cord), usually caused by bacterial or viral infection.

Meningococcal infection is infection by the meningococcus bacteria and is a prominent cause of meningitis (i.e. meningococcal meningitis).

Ornithosis is a bacterial zoonotic infection, transmissible from birds to humans.

Q fever is a bacterial zoonotic infection, transmissible from domestic animals to humans.

Salmonellosis is caused by infection of the bacteria salmonellae, a common cause of intestinal infection.

Septicaemia is a serious form of blood poisoning, or infection of the blood. It is important to note that in many cases of septicaemia there is an underlying condition, such as infection of a wound (often surgical), which spreads to the blood.

Shigellosis is a bacterial intestinal infection.

Yersiniosis is an acute bacterial intestinal infection.

Notification rates of other zoonotic diseases including leptospirosis, Q fever and brucellosis have all declined in recent decades.

Other infectious diseases

Other infectious diseases with notification rates of at least 0.5 per 100,000 in 1995 include legionellosis (0.9 per 100,000) and meningococcal infection (2.1).

Legionellosis was first notifiable in 1979. Notification rates for this infection, generally transmitted by airconditioning systems and spas, have been fairly steady between 1991 and 1995.

Notifications of meningococcal infection are available from 1949 to 1967–68, and from 1979 to 1995. Notification rates peaked at 6 cases per 100,000 in 1952, and declined to 0.3 in 1982. Rates have increased since then, and were 2.1 per 100,000 in 1995.

Endnotes

- 1 Nutbeam, D. 1993, *Goals and Targets for Australia's Health in the Year 2000 and Beyond*, University of Sydney, Sydney.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1995, *Children's Immunisation Australia*, Cat. no. 4352.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics, Causes of Death (unpublished data); Estimated Resident Population (unpublished data); Experimental Projections of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Population (unpublished data). This figure is based on data from South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory only, and is standardised to the total 1995 population.
- 4 Department of Health and Family Services *Communicable Diseases Intelligence*, Vol. 20, No. 21, 1996.
- 5 *Medical Journal of Australia* Vol. 164, 1996, pp. 347.
- 6 Halpin, K. et al. 'Identification of likely natural hosts for equine morbillivirus', *Communicable Diseases Intelligence*, Vol. 20, No. 22, 1996.
- 7 Allworth, A. et al. 'A human case of encephalitis due to a lyssavirus recently identified in fruit bats', *Communicable Diseases Intelligence*, Vol. 20, No. 24, 1996.

Acquired immuno-deficiency syndrome

MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

Since the early 1980s to September 1996, around 16,000 people had been diagnosed with HIV, 7,000 had been diagnosed with AIDS and over 5,100 people had died from AIDS-related illnesses.

Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) is caused by a virus known as HIV (human immunodeficiency virus). Infection with the virus leads to damage to the body's immune system, with consequent susceptibility to a variety of infections and some unusual forms of cancer. It is these associated illnesses that kill people with AIDS¹.

AIDS is a world wide public health problem which raises many medical, social and legal issues. These issues include concerns regarding the transmission of the virus, the disclosure of HIV infection to health professionals, preventing discrimination, guaranteeing confidentiality and ensuring continued quality of life for those infected.

The two main risk behaviours involved in the spread of HIV are unprotected sexual intercourse between men and sharing needles among injecting drug users. There is no vaccine against, nor cure for, HIV infection. Consequently, prevention strategies focus on education to encourage behaviour change.

The Federal Budget allocated \$51 million in 1996-97 to maintain an effective national response to HIV/AIDS, with a commitment to further funding over the next three years².

HIV and AIDS

The *human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)* is a virus that selectively infects and destroys a particular group of white blood cells, T4-lymphocytes. These cells are an integral part of the human immune system. When the number or effectiveness of these cells declines, the body becomes susceptible to various other infections.

HIV is a relatively new virus. It was identified in 1983 and testing began in 1985. It is transmitted from one person to another through the exchange of blood and bodily fluids. There is generally a long period between infection with HIV and the onset of severe HIV-related illnesses, including AIDS. After infection, most people enter a stage in which they have no signs or symptoms of HIV infection³.

Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) occurs when serious infections, neoplasms or other life-threatening conditions develop as a result of a progressively degenerating immune system caused by HIV⁴.

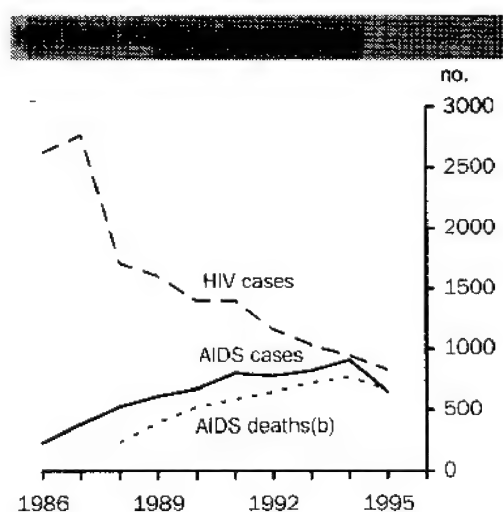
AIDS-related deaths are deaths where HIV or AIDS was the underlying cause or where HIV/AIDS was a condition mentioned on the death certificate.

HIV and AIDS in Australia

In 1995 an estimated 15 million people were infected with HIV worldwide⁵. Australia established early strategies to combat HIV and AIDS. As a result, the incidence of HIV infection is relatively low. Since the early 1980s to September 1996, figures compiled by the National Centre in HIV Epidemiology and Clinical Research show that nearly 16,000 people had been diagnosed with HIV, 7,033 had been diagnosed with AIDS and 5,116 had died from AIDS-related illnesses⁶.

A HIV positive person can live a healthy life for 10 or more years before developing AIDS. As a result of this time delay the number of new AIDS cases each year has increased despite a fall in the number of new HIV cases. This time lag between contracting HIV and developing AIDS is expected to increase even further as new and emerging treatments give some promise that HIV will become a chronic, manageable illness².

Despite Australia's success in limiting the spread of HIV and AIDS, there are still areas of



(a) New cases each calendar year.

(b) The ABS Causes of Death collection has identified deaths attributed to HIV/AIDS since 1988.

Source: National Centre in HIV Epidemiology and Clinical Research, *Australian HIV Surveillance Report*, April 1996; Causes of Death (unpublished data).

concern. For example, it appears that the rate of diagnosis among Indigenous people is increasing². As a result, new policy directions for Indigenous people have been defined in the third National HIV/AIDS Strategy.

HIV cases diagnosed

There has been a marked decrease in the number of new HIV cases diagnosed annually over the past decade. The number of HIV cases diagnosed peaked at 2,773 in 1987. This dropped by 1,062 the following year, and continued to decline to 833 in 1995.

The peak in 1987 is related to many factors. The virus was identified in 1983 and testing became available in 1985. The high number of diagnoses in 1986 and 1987 reflects the testing of many people who had contracted the virus up to that time. This peak was followed by a large decrease in the number of cases diagnosed because much of the backlog in testing had been cleared. The decline is also due to Australia's early and proactive response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic.

Of people diagnosed with HIV in 1995, most (760) were males and 73 were females. Over one third of people diagnosed with HIV were aged 30–39 (37%) and a further 30% were aged 20–29. The mean age at diagnosis was 35 for males and 30 for females.

Most people who have contracted HIV were exposed through male homosexual contact. Sydney, which has a relatively large homosexual population, has had a substantially higher per capita rate of HIV diagnoses compared to other cities of

The Third National HIV/AIDS Strategy²

The Third National HIV/AIDS Strategy, 1996–97 to 1998–99, was released in December 1996. It aims to:

- ◆ eliminate the transmission of HIV; and
- ◆ minimise the personal and social impact of HIV infection.

There are five priority areas in this strategy. They are:

- ◆ education and prevention;
- ◆ treatment and care;
- ◆ research;
- ◆ international assistance and cooperation; and
- ◆ legal and social justice matters.

The strategy presents HIV/AIDS as one among a number of communicable diseases that pose serious public health risks. As such, it attempts to integrate HIV/AIDS into mainstream health services. It also aims to integrate HIV/AIDS into efforts to combat related diseases.

An evaluation of the second National HIV/AIDS Strategy concluded that HIV infections among homosexually active young men had plateaued at an unsatisfactorily high level and that there was almost certainly an epidemic of HIV in its early stages among Indigenous people. As a result, this third strategy will target these two groups by providing the context for two other important strategies — the Gay Men's Education Strategy and the Indigenous Sexual Health Strategy.

Australia². As a result over half of all HIV diagnoses in 1995 were in New South Wales (53%). However, this was down from 73% in 1986³. People in capital cities have, in general, experienced higher per capita rates of HIV and AIDS than those in regional Australia².

AIDS cases diagnosed

The number of new AIDS cases diagnosed increased from 231 in 1986 to a peak of 909 in 1994. In 1995 this fell to 648 diagnosed cases⁴. The increase to 1994 is linked to the large number of people who contracted HIV in the mid to late 1980s. The decline in 1995 is due, in part, to the fall in HIV cases diagnosed from 1987. It may also reflect the increasing effectiveness of treatments for HIV, extending the time between infection and progression.

Of people diagnosed with AIDS in 1995, most (619) were males, 27 were females and two did not report their sex. Almost half (45%) of those diagnosed with AIDS were aged 30–39 and 27% were aged 40–49. Taking into account the time delay between contracting HIV and developing AIDS, this indicates that

Age group (years)	Males	Females	All people
	no.	no.	no.
0–12	2	5	7
13–19	5	10	15
20–29	233	20	253
30–39	283	26	309
40–49	146	8	154
50–59	49	3	52
60 and over	23	0	23
Total(b)	760	73	833

(a) Refers to new cases diagnosed between 1 January and 30 December 1995.

(b) Includes age unknown.

Source: National Centre in HIV Epidemiology and Clinical Research, *Australian HIV Surveillance Report*, April 1996 and unpublished data.

AIDS cases diagnosed(a), 1995

Age group (years)	Males	Females	All people(b)
	no.	no.	no.
0-12	0	3	3
13-19	3	0	3
20-29	86	4	90
30-39	279	13	292
40-49	171	6	177
50-59	62	1	63
60 and over	18	0	18
Total	619	27	648

(a) Refers to new cases diagnosed between 1 January and 30 December 1995.

(b) Includes sex not reported.

Source: National Centre in HIV Epidemiology and Clinical Research, *Australian HIV Surveillance Report*, April 1996.

most of these people were in their late 20s or early 30s when they were infected with HIV. This is a similar pattern to those who have contracted HIV more recently.

AIDS-related deaths

Causes of death statistics compiled by the Australian Bureau of Statistics indicate that the number of AIDS-related deaths increased progressively each year from 231 in 1988 to 764 in 1994. These increases were due to deaths of people who acquired the illness during the 1980s. As such, they do not indicate more recent increases in the spread of AIDS.

The high rates of HIV diagnosis in the late 1980s and the subsequent large number of AIDS cases diagnosed over the last decade, suggest that the increases in numbers of people dying from AIDS might have continued for the rest of the century.

Age group (years)	Males	Females	All people
	no.	no.	no.
0-19	2	1	3
20-29	51	10	61
30-39	264	13	277
40-49	197	8	205
50-59	87	4	91
60 and over	28	1	29
Total	629	37	666

Source: Causes of Death (unpublished data).

International comparison

The rates of AIDS cases reported varies greatly between different countries of the world. In 1994 Zimbabwe, for example, had 95 per 100,000 new AIDS cases reported. For Australia the rate was 5 per 100,000 which is similar to that recorded for Canada but substantially less than the rate recorded in the United States of America.

However, care should be taken in comparing these rates. They are affected by a number of factors such as the length of time AIDS has been in each country, as well as differences in reporting practices and testing procedures. For example, the World Health Organisation estimates that there are nearly six million cases of AIDS in Africa, yet only 499,037 cases have ever been reported.

Reported AIDS cases(a), 1994

Country	Cases	Rate(b)
	no.	no.
Australia	909	5.1
Canada	1 467	5.0
France	5 505	9.5
Japan	204	0.2
New Zealand	42	1.2
Sweden	183	2.1
Uganda	4 927	23.9
UK	1 659	2.9
USA	64 026	24.6
Zimbabwe	10 647	95.5

(a) Refers to new cases reported in 1994.

(b) Rate per 100,000 mid-year 1994 population.

Source: United Nations (1996) *Statistical Yearbook 1994*.

However, the number of deaths fell to 666 in 1995. This decrease is especially surprising because of the peak in AIDS cases diagnosed in 1994. However, there have been developments in AIDS treatments in the last year which are prolonging life expectancy for those infected. This may have helped to lower the rate, although it does not necessarily indicate the start of a long-term decline in AIDS-related deaths.

In 1995, most people dying from AIDS-related illnesses were males (94%). Among males, 42% of those who died were aged 30-39, and a further 31% were aged 40-49. Among females, 35% were aged 30-39 and 27% were aged 20-29. The majority of AIDS-related deaths were in New South Wales (56%), Victoria (23%) and Queensland (10%).

People diagnosed with HIV

Self reported exposure category	1986	1989	1992	1995
	no.	no.	no.	no.
Male homosexual/bisexual contact	1 097	965	746	566
Heterosexual contact	24	79	136	131
Male homosexual/bisexual contact and injecting drug use	35	35	38	35
Injecting drug use (female and heterosexual male)	60	78	55	33
Mother with/at risk for HIV infection	1	5	4	7
Receipt of blood components/tissue	76	22	16	2
Health care setting	0	0	3	0
Other/undetermined	857	379	144	59
Total	2 150	1 563	1 142	833

Source: National Centre in HIV Epidemiology and Clinical Research, *Australian HIV Surveillance Report*, April 1996 and unpublished data.

Transmission mode

Because of the lag between contracting HIV and developing AIDS, only people who have recently been diagnosed with HIV are studied to determine current transmission modes.

In 1995, the majority of people diagnosed with HIV contracted it through male homosexual/bisexual contact only (566 cases). This was down from 1,097 cases in 1986. At the same time, the number of people who contracted HIV through receiving blood components or tissue has also decreased. This is linked to the introduction of blood and tissue screening for the virus. Similarly, the number of people who contracted the virus through injecting drug use has decreased since the late 1980s. This follows the introduction of needle and syringe exchange programs. The number of people contracting HIV through heterosexual contact has increased from 24 cases in 1986 to 131 cases in 1995.

There are sex differences in the exposure categories of people diagnosed with HIV. In 1995, among males, the most common exposure category was homosexual/bisexual contact (74%). Among females, it was heterosexual contact (81%).

Endnotes

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Education

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The proportion of students attending non-government schools has increased from 22% in 1974 to 29% in 1995.

EDUCATION AND WORK

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In 1995 women represented 64% of all teachers and this proportion is expected to increase.

Academics	79
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In 1995 there were 32,900 academics in higher education: 24% were in research only; 6% were teaching only; and the rest performed both teaching and research functions.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Education and employment	84
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In 1996, 42% of those aged 15–64 had post-school qualifications. People with post-school qualifications were more likely to be employed than those without them.

Education — national summary

PARTICIPATION		Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
School students	'000		3001	3005	3022	3031	3042	3075	3099	3098	3099	3109	3143
VET students(a)	'000		887	937	952	932	967	986	1043	1121	r1132	1273	n.a.
Higher education students	'000		390	394	421	441	485	535	559	576	585	604	634
Year 12 apparent retention rate	%		48.7	53.1	57.6	60.3	64.0	71.3	77.1	76.6	74.6	72.2	71.3
Aged 15–24 (of all aged 15–24)(b)													
Participating in any education	%		40.1	41.9	43.5	44.9	45.5	47.6	49.1	48.2	48.4	47.9	50.3
Participating in TAFE	%		8.4	8.7	9.6	9.7	9.2	9.6	9.9	9.5	8.6	8.9	9.6
Participating in higher education	%		8.0	8.8	9.2	10.8	12.0	12.7	13.7	13.1	14.9	14.2	15.5
Women aged 15–24 participating in tertiary education (of all tertiary students aged 15–24)(b)	%		42.4	45.1	45.7	43.9	46.4	46.6	47.2	48.2	48.9	46.7	47.7
ATTAINMENT		Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications (of all aged 15–64)(b)	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	39.2	39.7	40.8	41.7	39.1	r39.0	r41.0	42.3
Degree or higher	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	7.9	8.4	9.0	9.6	10.1	11.5	11.9	12.8
Skilled vocational qualification	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.7	13.6	r12.9	r13.5	14.1
Undergraduate or associate diploma(c)	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	9.0	r8.6	r9.1	8.8
Basic vocational qualification	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6.4	r6.0	r6.4	6.5
Aged 15–64 and did not complete highest level of secondary school (of all aged 15–64)(b)	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r39.6	37.4	36.0	34.3	37.3	r37.6	r36.0	34.7
Women aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications (of all people aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications)(b)	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	41.8	42.4	43.0	43.6	42.6	44.0	r44.0	44.1
EDUCATION AND WORK		Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)													
With degree or higher	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2.4	3.2	3.9	4.3	r4.8	4.7	3.6	3.8
With skilled vocational qualification	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.3	4.2	7.1	9.6	8.8	6.3	6.0	5.5
With undergraduate or associate diploma(c)	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r5.9	r5.8	5.4	5.2
With basic vocational qualification	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	9.3	8.3	7.8	8.6
Without post-school qualifications(c)	%		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r7.9	8.2	12.0	13.4	13.7	12.6	10.7	10.9
Apprentices	'000		r134.5	r139.7	r153.0	r175.5	r162.6	r139.1	r137.0	r111.2	r113.9	r114.6	126.3
SERVICES		Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
School student/teacher ratio	no.		15.3	15.1	r15.3	15.3	15.3	15.4	15.3	15.3	15.5	15.4	15.4
Government schools	no.		7589	7575	7535	7513	7490	7470	7448	7366	7159	7122	7088
Non-government schools	no.		2496	2504	2519	2523	2517	2510	2509	2499	2520	2526	2 542
EXPENDITURE		Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Govt expenditure on education (of GDP)	%		5.4	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.6	5.0	5.3	5.3	5.2	5.0	5.4
Total expenditure on education (of GDP)	%		5.8	5.7	5.4	5.1	5.1	5.6	5.9	6.0	5.8	5.6	6.1

(a) Data prior to 1994 are not strictly comparable to more recent data due to changes in scope and collection methodology.

(b) From 1993 figures refer to participation in courses leading to recognised qualifications only.

(c) Prior to 1993 the undergraduate or associate diploma category included basic vocational qualifications and other certificates/diplomas, some of which are no longer classified as post-school qualifications.

Reference periods:

Schools data are at July, except for 1991 and 1995 (both August). TAFE data comprise enrolments in the calendar year to 31 December. Higher education data are at 31 March from 1989; prior to that the reference date was 30 April. Apprentice data are at May. Expenditure data are for financial years.

Education — State summary

PARTICIPATION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
School students	'000	1996	1 065.3	776.5	567.1	246.2	306.8	84.2	35.5	61.4	3 143.0
VET students	'000	1995	454.3	367.8	194.5	95.0	109.2	21.7	11.5	18.8	1 272.7
Higher education students(a)	'000	1996	195.2	175.0	108.2	47.9	61.4	12.8	5.0	20.0	634.1
Year 12 apparent retention rate	%	1996	67.7	75.3	76.5	68.4	70.7	53.1	41.0	91.3	71.3
Aged 15-24 (of all aged 15-24)											
Participating in any education	%	1996	51.5	53.3	47.2	49.2	46.0	43.5	50.2	57.4	50.3
Participating in TAFE	%	1996	11.2	8.8	8.2	9.0	10.9	6.4	*3.9	6.7	9.6
Participating in higher education	%	1996	14.3	17.0	16.4	13.6	14.1	9.9	21.4	23.3	15.5
Women aged 15-24 participating in tertiary education (of all tertiary students aged 15-24)	%	1996	43.8	47.5	50.5	50.1	51.5	49.7	*56.3	55.7	47.7
ATTAINMENT	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Aged 15-64 with post-school qualifications (of all aged 15-64)(b)	%	1996	45.7	40.8	39.1	39.2	42.7	36.3	41.1	53.0	42.3
Degree or higher	%	1996	13.8	13.5	10.9	10.4	11.9	9.8	12.8	26.2	12.8
Skilled vocational qualification	%	1996	14.5	12.6	15.5	13.5	15.3	14.4	14.9	9.7	14.1
Undergraduate or associate diploma	%	1996	9.4	9.4	7.4	8.5	8.8	6.3	9.3	9.9	8.8
Basic vocational qualification	%	1996	8.0	5.3	5.3	6.8	6.7	5.8	4.0	7.2	6.5
Aged 15-64 and did not complete highest level of secondary school (of all people aged 15-64)(b)	%	1996	32.6	35.1	37.5	37.4	34.8	41.0	37.3	18.3	34.7
EDUCATION AND WORK	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Unemployment rate (aged 15-64)											
With degree or higher	%	1996	4.0	4.6	2.6	5.1	*2.7	*3.5	*1.8	*2.2	3.8
With skilled vocational qualification	%	1996	4.6	5.4	6.6	6.9	5.9	*4.1	*4.3	7.6	5.5
With undergraduate or associate diploma	%	1996	5.4	5.8	5.0	*4.6	*3.3	*3.6	*7.0	*6.7	5.2
With basic vocational qualifications	%	1996	6.8	8.5	13.9	11.4	*6.4	*10.0	*0.0	*7.7	8.6
Without post-school qualifications	%	1996	10.4	10.7	11.8	11.1	9.8	14.2	8.0	11.1	10.9
Apprentices	'000	1996	47.1	26.0	25.3	8.6	15.4	2.5	*0.5	*0.9	126.3
SERVICES	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
School student/teacher ratio	no.	1996	15.4	15.1	15.9	15.3	15.6	15.0	13.7	15.9	15.4
Government schools	no.	1996	2186	1700	1314	651	764	229	145	99	7088
Non-government schools	no.	1996	867	679	410	194	255	70	27	40	2542

(a) State totals exclude students of the Australian Catholic University which has campuses in more than one State.

(b) From 1993 figures refer to participation in courses leading to recognised qualifications only.

Reference periods:

Schools data are at August. TAFE data comprise enrolments in the calendar year to 31 December. Higher education data are at 31 March. Apprentice data are at May.

Education — definitions and references

- Apprentice** — an employed person aged 15–34 who has entered into a legal contract (called an 'indenture' or 'contract of training') with an employer to serve a period of training for the purpose of attaining tradesperson's status in a recognised trade.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Associate diploma** — course lasting from one to two years full time (or equivalent) for those wanting to work in advanced trades, technical, or associate professional occupations.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Basic vocational qualification** — course lasting from one semester to one year full time (or equivalent) providing practical skills and knowledge for those wanting to work at the operative level in various fields. Prior to 1993, basic vocational qualifications were included with undergraduate or associate diplomas.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Degree or higher** — a bachelor degree (including honours), a graduate or post-graduate diploma, master's degree or a doctorate.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Did not complete highest level of secondary school** — a person without post-school qualifications who did not complete the highest level of secondary schooling available at the time they left school.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Full-time equivalent (FTE)** — a measure of the total level of staff resources used. The FTE of a full-time staff member is equal to 1.0. The calculation of FTE for part-time staff is based on the proportion of time worked compared to that worked by full-time staff performing similar duties.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).
- GDP (gross domestic product)** — the current price measure which is the sum of all final expenditure, changes in stocks and imports less exports.
Reference: *Expenditure on Education, Australia* (Cat. no. 5510.0).
- Government expenditure on education** — government final expenditure, personal benefit payments, advances to persons for the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) and other government expenditure.
Reference: *Expenditure on Education, Australia* (Cat. no. 5510.0).
- Government school** — one administered by the Department of Education in each State/Territory.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).
- Higher education student** — a person for whom there is a full-time, part-time or external enrolment in a course at a higher education institution at the reference date.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0); Department of Employment, Education and Training, *Selected Higher Education Statistics*.
- Non-government school** — one not administered by a Department of Education but including special schools administered by government authorities other than the State/Territory education departments.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).
- Post-school qualification** — a qualification gained by a person after leaving school, including higher degrees, postgraduate diplomas, bachelor degrees, undergraduate and associate diplomas, and skilled and basic qualifications.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- School** — an educational institution which provides primary or secondary education on a full-time daily basis, or by radio or correspondence.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).
- School student** — a person who is enrolled in a school and active in a course of study, other than pre-school or technical and further education (TAFE) courses.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).
- School student/teacher ratio** — number of school students divided by full-time equivalent teachers.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).
- Skilled vocational qualification** — course lasting two to four years, and typically involving some on-the-job training, for those wanting to work in a specific vocation, recognised trade or craft that requires a high degree of skill in a range of related activities. Prior to 1993, skilled vocational qualifications referred to trade qualifications only.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0.40.001).
- Tertiary education** — education provided by any institution offering post-school courses. Includes TAFE, higher education and other post-school systems.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Total expenditure on education** — government expenditure on education plus private final expenditure on education.
Reference: *Expenditure on Education, Australia* (Cat. no. 5510.0).
- Undergraduate diploma** — course lasting three years full-time (or equivalent) for those wanting to work as professionals or associate professionals.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Unemployment rate** — the number of unemployed persons in any group expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- VET student** — a person for whom there is a full-time or part-time vocational stream enrolment in a TAFE college or a course provided by some private or adult and community education providers in the reference year.
Reference: National Centre for Vocational Education Research, *Selected VET Statistics*.
- Year 12 apparent retention rate** — the percentage of full-time students of a given cohort group who continue from the first year of secondary schooling to Year 12.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).

Government and non-government schools

PARTICIPATION

The proportion of students attending non-government schools has increased from 22% in 1974 to 29% in 1995.

Australia has a dual school system of government and non-government (independent) schools. In 1995, 74% of schools were government schools and the remaining 26% were non-government (18% Catholic, 1% Anglican, and 7% other schools). Although these proportions have remained relatively stable since the late 1940s, the proportion of students attending independent schools has been gradually increasing, rising from 22% in 1974 to 29% in 1995 (20% Catholic, 3% Anglican and 7% other schools). The other 71% of students attended government schools.

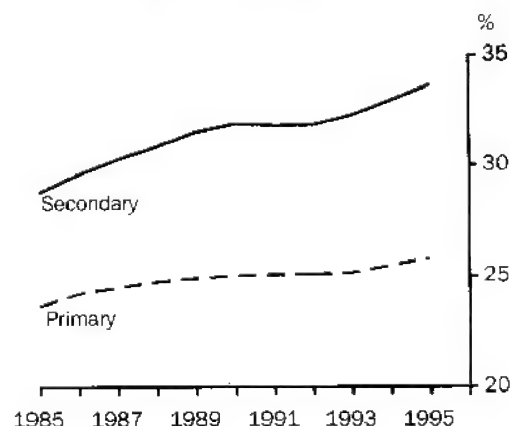
Participation

In 1995 there were 3.1 million school students, 901,500 of whom attended independent schools and 2.2 million, government schools. A smaller proportion of primary (26%) than secondary (34%) students attended independent schools.

Both primary and secondary independent schools have been taking an increasing number of students but the increase has been greater at the secondary school level. Between 1985 and 1995 the number of primary school students attending independent schools increased by 9% while the number attending secondary schools increased by 17%.

At each age from 5 to 11, the proportion of students attending independent schools was much the same (about 26%). However among

Proportion of students who went to non-government schools



Source: Schools, Australia (Cat. no. 4221.0).

Australian schools system

The ages that children attend primary and secondary school vary between the States. In all States children start school at age 5 or 6 and compulsory schooling ends at age 15 or 16. In Queensland and the Northern Territory secondary schooling finishes at age 16 or 17. In all the other States secondary schooling finishes at age 17 or 18. Each State and Territory also has a pre-school sector which is separate from the primary system and is not included in this review.

Government schools are those which are administered by the State or Territory governments.

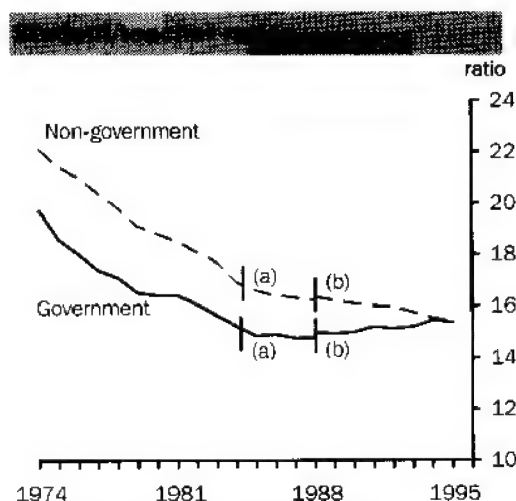
Non-government (or independent) schools are those which are administered by a religious, community or private organisation. Non-government schools may have a specific religious affiliation or be inter-denominational, non-denominational, or have no religious affiliation.

Student/teacher ratios are the number of full-time students per full-time equivalent (FTE) teacher. This ratio is not an indicator of class size, but does gauge the level of teaching resources per student and teacher load.

Year 12 apparent retention rates are the proportion of full-time students who all began secondary school in the same year and continued through to year 12. However retention rates should be interpreted carefully since some factors affecting them are not taken into account. These include: students repeating years; students moving schools; students migrating overseas or interstate; overseas students; and differing State enrolment policies.

Level of education	1985	1995	1995
	%	%	'000
Non-government	25.8	29.0	901.5
Primary	23.7	25.8	472.4
Secondary	28.8	33.6	429.1
Government	74.2	71.0	2 207.9
Primary	76.3	74.2	1 361.3
Secondary	71.2	66.4	846.6
All schools	100.0	100.0	3 109.3

Source: Schools, Australia (Cat. no. 4221.0).

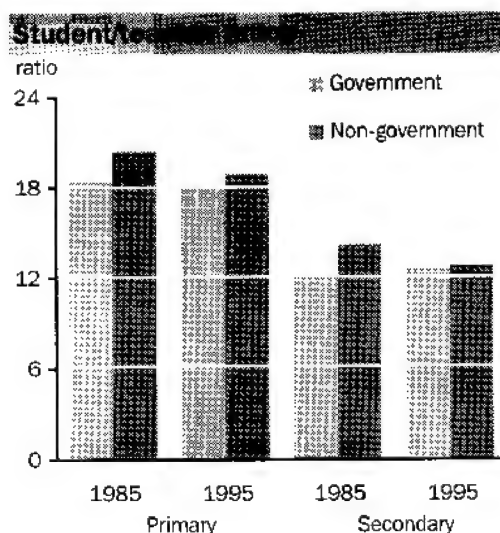


(a) In 1984 the National Schools Statistics Collection was fully implemented. Care should be taken when comparing current data with data from before 1984.
 (b) Since 1988 specialist teachers have been separately identified from teachers.

Source: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).

secondary students the proportion attending independent schools increased with age from 30% at age 12 and 33% at age 13, to 37% at age 17.

Government schools tended to be larger than independent schools. At the primary school level there was a median of 214 students per government school and 195 students per independent school. The difference in school sizes was larger at the secondary level. Government secondary schools had a median size of 718 students while independent secondary schools had a median of 553 students.



Source: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).

Student/teacher ratios

Student/teacher ratios are not a reflection of class size. Rather, they are a measure of teaching resources per student and teacher load. Declines in student/teacher ratios over time indicate that teaching resources per student have increased.

Student/teacher ratios have dropped in both government and independent schools since 1974, from 20 and 22 students per teacher respectively, to 15 students per teacher in both systems in 1995.

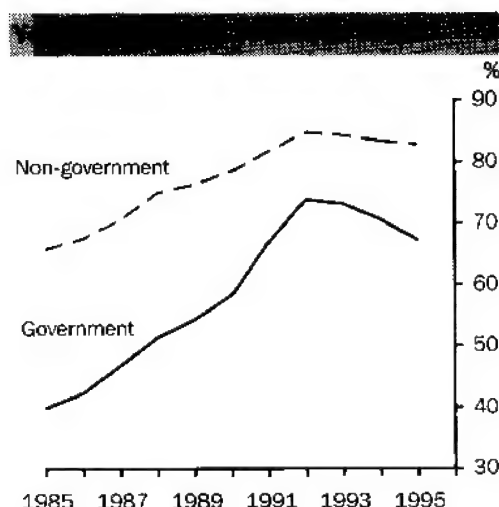
In government schools (both primary and secondary), all of the decline occurred between 1974 and 1985. Over the last decade the number of students per teacher have remained at 18 in primary schools and 12 in secondary schools.

For independent schools most of the decline also occurred between 1974 and 1985. Over the last 10 years, the number of students in independent primary schools fell slightly from 20 to 19 and in independent secondary schools from 14 to 13.

Apparent retention rates

Comparisons of Year 12 retention rates over time indicate that children have been staying at school longer than did students a decade ago (see Education — national summary table, p. 66). Year 12 retention rates do not account for movements of students between schools. There is a net movement of students in their final years of schooling, from government to independent schools. This can be inferred from the different age patterns of participation. This movement artificially increases the apparent retention rates of the independent schools and decreases those of the government schools.

In 1985 government secondary schools had an apparent Year 12 retention rate of 40% and independent schools had a rate of 66%. Apparent retention rates peaked in 1992, at 74% for government schools and 85% for independent schools. This may be related to the economic recession and the lack of jobs available for young people at that time (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Youth unemployment, pp. 98–103). Government youth and higher education policies which encouraged young people to continue their education may also have played a part¹. However since 1992, following the easing of the recession, apparent retention rates have fallen, particularly for government schools. In 1995 government schools had an apparent



Source: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).

retention rate of 67% compared to 83% for independent schools.

Apparent retention rates differ between independent schools. In 1995 Catholic schools had a rate of 75% which was only slightly higher than the government rate while Anglican schools had a rate of 99%.

Students attending non-government schools

Independent schools include Catholic schools, grammar schools and a range of denominational, inter-denominational and non-religious schools. In 1995 there were

2,500 independent schools and 901,500 independent school students.

Most independent schools had a religious affiliation. Although Census data shows that fewer individuals were identifying with a religious denomination, the number of students attending independent schools was, nevertheless, increasing. Schools with a religious affiliation tended to attract students of the same denomination (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Religion and education, pp. 190–193). However, Catholic schools educated more students than the number of Catholic school-age children (according to the 1991 Census). In contrast, Anglican schools attracted fewer enrolments than there were Anglican school-age children.

Most independent schools were Catholic. Catholic schools tended to be larger than other independent schools in both the primary and secondary sectors. Students attending Catholic schools were also proportionately less likely to be going to combined primary/secondary schools than were students attending other independent schools. Most of the smaller affiliations tended to have combined schools. These differences between Catholic and other independent schools were almost as marked as the differences between independent and government schools.

The number of students attending schools of all affiliations increased over the period 1985 to 1995. In particular, students attending

Affiliation	Primary	Secondary	Combined	Total	Total
	%	%	%	%	'000
Anglican	1.3	3.1	25.2	9.9	89.1
Baptist	0.3	0.5	3.6	1.5	13.4
Catholic	90.2	88.5	24.6	67.5	607.2
Jewish	0.4	0.2	2.2	1.0	8.9
Lutheran	2.8	2.5	1.3	2.2	20.1
Presbyterian	0.1	0.1	2.5	0.9	8.4
Seventh Day Adventist	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.7	6.7
Uniting Church	0.1	0.0	13.0	4.5	40.2
Other	3.8	4.3	26.8	11.8	105.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	899.9
	'000	'000	'000	'000	
Total	354.8	239.6	305.5	899.9	..

(a) Excludes students attending special schools.

Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training, *Non-Government Schools Bulletin* (unpublished data).

Baptist schools increased from 5,800 to 13,400 and Lutheran from 11,900 to 20,100. The category of schools which included non-religious schools as well as those affiliated to Pentecostal and other newer denominations, also grew quickly. This group almost doubled in size from 56,300 students to 105,900 students.

There was a slightly higher proportion of girls in independent schools in 1995, than in government schools (50% compared to 49%). However Anglican schools had fewer girls (47%) than boys.

As was the case for government schools, independent secondary schools had fewer students per teacher (13) than independent primary schools (19). Of the various independent schools, Catholic and Lutheran schools had the highest numbers of students per teacher of both primary and secondary schools. Uniting Church schools had the lowest number of students per teacher (14) of primary schools and Seventh Day Adventist schools had the lowest (11) among secondary schools.

Non-government single-sex schools

There has been some debate over whether single-sex or co-educational schools improve further education and career prospects for girls or boys². Traditionally single-sex schools, which are more prevalent among independent schools, have attracted students from a higher socio-economic status than co-educational ones. This has made studies of the effects of single-sex and co-educational schools on student performances difficult to interpret³.

Student/teacher ratios(a) at non-government schools, 1995

Affiliation	Primary	Secondary	Total
	ratio	ratio	ratio
Anglican	14.8	11.7	12.6
Baptist	18.0	11.9	14.4
Catholic	20.3	13.7	16.8
Jewish	18.1	11.3	14.6
Lutheran	19.0	13.3	16.1
Presbyterian	14.8	11.3	12.1
Seventh Day Adventist	18.1	11.0	14.5
Uniting Church	14.2	11.3	12.1
Other	17.0	11.7	13.9
Total	19.1	12.8	15.5

(a) Excludes students and teachers in non-government special schools.

Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training, Non-Government Schools Bulletin (unpublished data).

The proportion of students from independent schools attending single-sex schools, has dropped from 31% in 1985 to 24% in 1995. In secondary schools, 55% of boys and 54% of girls went to single-sex schools, in 1985. However by 1995 the proportion attending single-sex secondary schools had dropped to 41% of boys and 45% of girls.

Socio-economic status of students

Independent schools select and attract students from different socio-economic backgrounds to those in government schools. Generally the higher the income quintile of

Students(a) attending non-government schools

School type	1985			1995		
	Primary	Secondary	Total	Primary	Secondary	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Single-sex	8.6	54.8	30.7	6.9	43.3	24.2
Male	6.1	27.3	16.2	3.6	20.7	11.7
Female	2.6	27.5	14.5	3.3	22.6	12.5
Co-educational	91.4	45.2	69.3	93.1	56.7	75.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	403.1	367.9	770.9	471.6	428.3	899.9

(a) Excludes students in non-government special schools.

Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training, Non-Government Schools Bulletin (unpublished data).

Average school fees per student per week(a), 1993-94

School child attended	Income quintile of households with school age children			Total
	Lowest quintile	Second quintile	Highest quintile	
	\$	\$	\$	\$
Government				
Primary	1.66	1.58	2.10	2.00
Secondary	4.88	3.97	4.69	4.81
Non-government				
Primary	23.62	14.40	40.76	24.78
Secondary	64.21	63.19	98.48	75.78
Total	14.64	9.76	39.31	21.28

(a) Averaged over the whole year.

Source: 1993-94 Household Expenditure Survey (unpublished data).

the household, the greater the likelihood that at least one child from the household was attending an independent school. Among households with school-age children, 22% of those in the lowest quintile (the 20% of households with the lowest incomes) and 14% of those in the second quintile had children attending an independent school. In comparison 41% of those in the highest quintile had children attending independent schools.

The amounts paid in school fees and contributions are substantially higher for children attending independent schools than government schools, especially for secondary students. In 1993-94 households with

children in government schools paid an average of \$2.00 per week per child for those in primary school and \$4.81 per week for those in secondary school. In contrast the fees and contributions paid for students attending independent schools averaged \$24.78 per week for primary school students and \$75.78 for secondary school students. Households in the highest quintile paid higher independent school fees and contributions than those in the lowest quintile. However households in all quintiles paid similar government school fees and contributions.

Further education and work

The outcomes for students attending government and independent schools in terms of whether they go on to further study or have better employment prospects, is of interest. Differences are observable but it is important to note that the reasons do not necessarily reflect differences in the schools themselves. This is because students attending some independent schools come from families in which the parents have been well educated or from families with high incomes. It is to be expected that children from these families will themselves be more likely to undertake further study or find work opportunities.

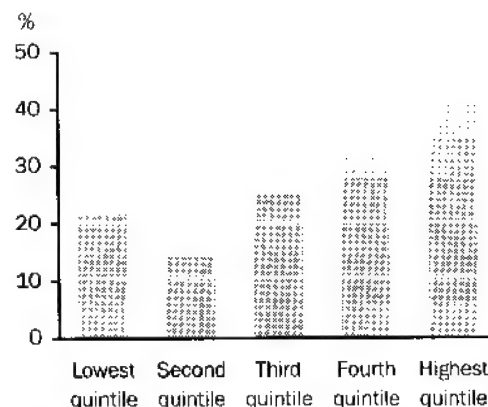
Persons aged 15-24 who left school in 1994

Whether attending a tertiary institution in 1995	Type of school last attended		
	Government	Non-government	Total
	%	%	%
Attending(a)	46.4	73.9	53.8
Higher education	18.9	43.3	25.5
TAFE	24.7	26.8	25.2
Not attending	53.6	26.1	46.2
Employed	29.9	18.8	26.9
Unemployed	17.8	6.2*	14.7
Not in the labour force	6.0	1.1*	4.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000
Total	200.9	73.8	274.7

(a) Includes other tertiary institutions.

Source: Transition from Education to Work (Cat. no. 6227.0).

Households with at least one child attending a non-government school, 1993-94



Source: 1993-94 Household Expenditure Survey (unpublished data).

Educational attainment of all people aged 15–24 who had left school and tertiary education, 1995

Attainment	Type of school last attended		Total
	Government	Non-government	
	%	%	%
With post-school qualifications	35.8	54.9	40.0
Bachelor degree or higher	7.2	18.9	9.8
Undergraduate diploma	1.1	2.5	1.4
Associate diploma	5.8	8.5	6.4
Skilled vocational qualifications	10.9	13.4	11.5
Basic vocational qualifications	10.8	11.6	10.9
Without post-school qualifications	64.2	45.1	60.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000
Total	1 154.5	324.3	1 479.1

Source: Transition From Education to Work (unpublished data).

In 1995 there were 275,000 people aged 15–24 who had left school in 1994. The majority of these (54%) attended tertiary education in 1995. However those who had attended independent schools were more likely to be in a tertiary institution than those who attended government schools (74% compared to 46%). 43% of school leavers who attended independent schools, were in higher education compared to 19% of government school leavers. The proportions of independent and government school leavers attending TAFE were similar (27% and 25% respectively).

Of those not attending a tertiary institution, 72% of independent school leavers were employed compared to 56% of government school leavers. A smaller proportion of independent than government school leavers were unemployed (24% compared to 33%).

In 1995, there were 1.5 million people aged 15–24 who were not attending any educational institutions. Those who had attended independent schools were more likely to have post-school qualifications than

those who had attended government schools (55% compared to 36%).

Of those who had attended an independent school, 19% had a bachelor degree or higher qualification compared to 7% of those who had attended a government school. Also, a higher proportion of ex-independent school students had attained a skilled or basic vocational qualification than those who had attended government schools.

Endnotes

- 1 Department of Employment, Education and Training 1993, *National Report on Australia's Higher Education Sector*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 2 Smith, I. 'The co-educational/single-sex schooling debate', *Forum of Education*, Vol. 49, no. 1, April 1994, pp. 15–31.
- 3 Commonwealth Schools Commission 1987, *The National Policy for the Education of Girls in Australian Schools*, Commonwealth Schools Commission, Canberra.

School teachers

EDUCATION AND WORK

In 1995 women represented 64% of all teachers and this proportion is expected to increase.

In 1995 there were 221,000 employed teachers in Australia. When counted in terms of full-time equivalent teachers (202,400), half were primary school teachers and half secondary. Most teachers (71%) were employed in government schools, 18% were employed in non-government Catholic schools, a further 4% in non-government Anglican schools and the remaining 7% in other independent schools. A greater proportion of government teachers (53%) were primary school teachers, while the reverse was true in non-government schools, where 57% were secondary school teachers.

Demand and supply

Changes in the number of teachers in the school system depend on changes in number of students and on the level of teaching resources allocated to students. Over the decade 1975 to 1985, the demand for teachers grew at a faster rate than the growth in number of students. This was because teaching resources per student progressively increased during this period. In 1975 there were 23 primary school pupils per teacher and 15 secondary school pupils per teacher. By 1985 the number of students per teacher had dropped to around 19 in primary schools

School teachers

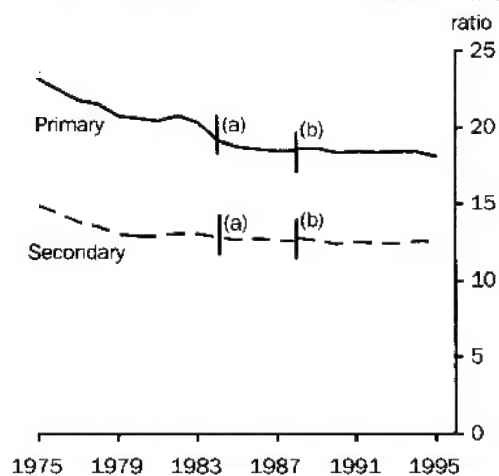
School teachers are teaching staff in schools who spend the majority of their time teaching students. Teachers aides are excluded although they may have some teaching roles (e.g. as reading teachers). Principals, deputy principals and senior teachers are included although they may be mainly involved in administration.

Full time equivalent (FTE) teachers are a measure of the total levels of staff resources. The FTE of a full-time staff member is equal to 1.0. The calculation of FTE for part-time staff is based on the proportion of time worked compared to full-time staff performing similar duties. Some States base FTE calculations on wages, resource allocations or student/teacher numbers instead of time. Unless otherwise stated, numbers of teachers in this review refer to FTE counts of teachers.

Student/teacher ratios are calculated as the number of full-time students to every FTE teacher. The ratio is not an indicator of class size.

In this review, care should be exercised when comparing pre-1984 schools data with data from 1984 on. The National Schools Statistics Collection was fully implemented in that year. Prior to 1984, data collected from the different States and Territories were not necessarily comparable.

Student/teacher ratios



- (a) In 1984 the National Schools Statistics Collection was fully implemented. Care should be taken when comparing current data with data from before 1984.
 (b) Since 1988 specialist teachers have been separately identified from teachers.

Source: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).

and 13 in secondary schools. Since then teacher resources relative to student numbers have remained stable. Given this relative stability, the increase in teacher numbers can be associated with the growth in number of school students. Between 1985 and 1995 teacher numbers increased from 90,300 to 101,000 in primary schools and 100,100 to 101,400 in secondary schools.

National trends for student/teacher ratios were not necessarily reflected in each State and Territory. In Victoria, for example, there were more students per teacher in both primary and secondary schools in 1995 than in 1985. There was however, less variation in student/teacher ratios between the States and Territories in 1995 than was the case a decade earlier¹.

Graduates from the education field of study constitute the major feeder group for the teaching workforce of the future. The number of students completing education degrees has increased from 22,800 in 1987 to 24,100 in

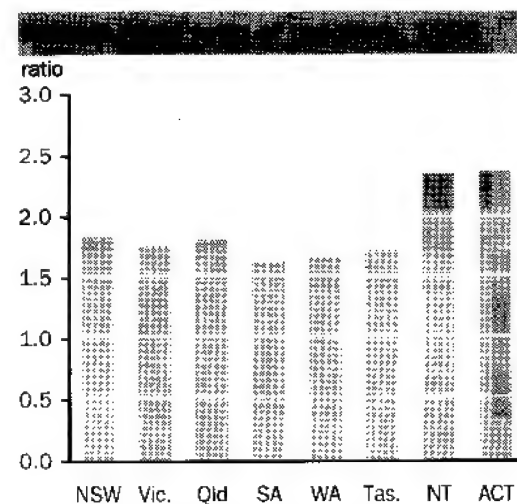
1995 and the number of students commencing education studies has also increased from 30,500 in 1987 to 32,300 in 1995. However, the number of commencing students in 1995 was lower than those in 1990, 1991 and 1992 (34,700, 37,000 and 33,200 respectively). Together with teacher resignations and retirements, these trends have raised some concerns that there will be an under-supply of appropriately trained teachers over the coming decade². Other studies suggest that the teaching workforce will remain at sufficient levels to meet demand into the next century³.

Demographics

In 1995, the majority (64%) of school teachers were female, and school teachers tended on average, to be older than workers in many other professions. 51% of all school teachers (48% of primary school teachers and 54% of secondary school teachers) were aged 40 years and over compared to 47% of all employed professionals and 42% of employed professional women.

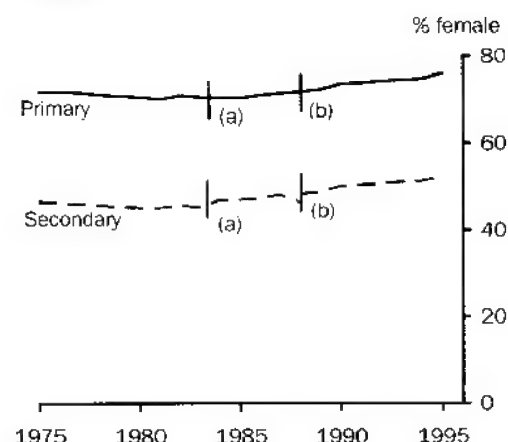
Female teachers outnumbered male teachers in every State and Territory in 1995.

Nationally, women outnumbered men by a ratio of 1.8:1. Men made up the smallest proportion of teaching staff in the Australian Capital Territory and Northern Territory where female/male ratios were 2.4:1 and 2.3:1, respectively. The representation of men in primary schools has long been much lower than in secondary schools where until 1990 men outnumbered women. In 1995 men represented only 24% of primary school teachers (down from a peak of 30% in 1980) and 48% of secondary school teachers (down from 55% in 1980).



Source: Schools, Australia (Cat. no. 4221.0).

Proportion of teachers who were women



(a) In 1984 the National Schools Statistics Collection was fully implemented. Care should be taken when comparing current data with data from before 1984.

(b) Since 1988 specialist teachers have been separately identified from teachers.

Source: Schools, Australia (Cat. no. 4221.0).

Increasing representation of women

In 1975, 59% of teachers were women. By 1995 this had increased to 64%. This trend is expected to continue because the balance between the numbers of men and women training to become teachers has also changed. In 1994, 74% of education students graduating from universities were women compared to 69% in 1987.

This trend coincided with a period in which there were also rapid increases in the numbers of women participating in a broad range of higher education courses, paid work and other career development activities (see Education — national summary table, p. 66; and Work — national summary table p. 90). Women may be particularly attracted to teaching as a career, as it has the advantage of longer periods of leave (during school holidays) compared to other professional occupations thus providing greater opportunity to spend time with their own children during their formative years.

Male teachers tend to be slightly older than female teachers (median ages of 40 years and 39 years respectively). With more male teachers due to retire over coming years this difference may increase the proportion of women teachers over time.

Other factors affecting the balance between men and women in teaching may relate to

Average weekly earnings and hours of full-time non-managerial adult employees, 1995

Selected occupations	Earnings(a)			Hours(b)
	Men	Women	Total	Total
	\$	\$	\$	hours
Professionals	876.10	757.50	820.30	37.7
University and CAE teachers	1091.20	891.00	1024.10	36.7
Electrical and electronics engineers	952.10	889.20	948.10	37.8
Lawyers	986.90	809.70	902.60	36.8
Journalists	963.60	812.10	894.80	38.6
Veterinarians	940.30	631.20	890.50	40.4
Computing professionals	879.20	820.40	862.40	38.3
TAFE teachers	829.10	797.00	816.90	36.4
Secondary school teachers	784.70	762.00	772.20	36.4
Primary school teachers	743.60	726.60	730.50	37.0
Social workers	732.50	695.10	705.00	37.5
Librarians	697.30	692.00	693.00	36.4
Pre-primary school teachers	669.10	632.10	633.40	37.4
Para-professionals	801.60	703.20	766.90	39.1
Registered nurses	787.50	755.70	760.60	38.3
Police	830.50	756.50	818.90	39.1
Other occupations				
Teachers' aides	502.30	416.50	421.30	34.1
All occupations	697.70	587.10	655.50	39.9

(a) Total average income including overtime.

(b) Total hours paid for including overtime, as reported by employers. This may differ from the number of hours actually worked, as reported by employees in the Labour Force Survey.

Source: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

changes in men's perceptions of teaching as a desirable career. Working conditions such as hours of work (paid and unpaid) and salary levels compared to other occupations may be influencing these trends.

Hours worked and earnings

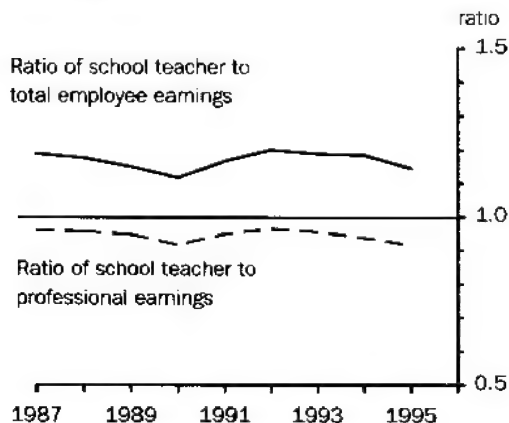
In the May 1995 ABS employer-based survey concerned with employee earnings and hours, employers reported that full-time school teachers were paid (on average) for working 37 hours per week. Teachers, along with some other professionals, were generally not paid for any overtime worked. In comparison, all employed persons were paid for 38 hours per week (on average), and if overtime is included, 40 hours per week.

However the hours per week that teachers themselves reported working (in the ABS Labour Force Survey, August 1995) were greater than those for which they were paid and often longer than those reported by

people in other occupations. Of primary and secondary teachers who worked full time (more than 35 hours a week), 48% worked 45 hours or more. This compares to averages for all full-time workers among whom 43% worked 45 hours or more. 47% of primary school teachers worked 45 hours or more compared to 50% of secondary teachers.

Full-time school teachers in 1995 earned on average \$750 per week, which placed them among the lower paid professionals. There was a clear relationship between earnings and the sector of teaching. University teachers had the highest average earnings and pre-primary, the lowest. Among para-professionals, police earned on average more than both primary and secondary teachers. Registered nurses earned more than primary teachers but less than secondary teachers. This was, in part, a reflection of the fact that police and nurses were more likely to be paid for their actual hours worked.

Ratio of school teacher earnings to professional and total employee earnings



Source: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Average earnings of full-time teachers have remained above earnings for all occupations. However they have continued to fall below

the average earnings of professional employees. Over the period 1987 to 1995, the earnings of teachers fell from 96% of the earnings of all professionals to 91%.

Over the same period, the average weekly earnings of female teachers have increased at a greater rate than that of male teachers. This may be related to their increasing participation in secondary school teaching as secondary teachers earned more than primary teachers.

Endnotes

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1996, *Education and Training in Australia*, Cat. no. 4224.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Preston, B. 1997, *Teacher Supply and Demand to 2003: Projections, Implications and Issues*, Australian Council of Deans of Education, Canberra.
- 3 Department of Employment, Education and Training 1995, *Australia's Workforce 2005: Jobs in the Future*, AGPS, Canberra.

Academics

EDUCATION AND WORK

In 1995 there were 32,900 academics in higher education: 24% were in research only; 6% were teaching only; and the rest performed both teaching and research functions.

Academics working in higher education are responsible for educating our future labour force, for maintaining and improving the skills of our current labour force and for supporting life-long learning goals of students. They are also responsible for considerable research production, particularly in fields which the private sector is less likely to support (such as the arts and humanities). The academic profession has been affected by substantial changes over the last decade through the restructuring of the higher education sector and as a result of large increases in student numbers.

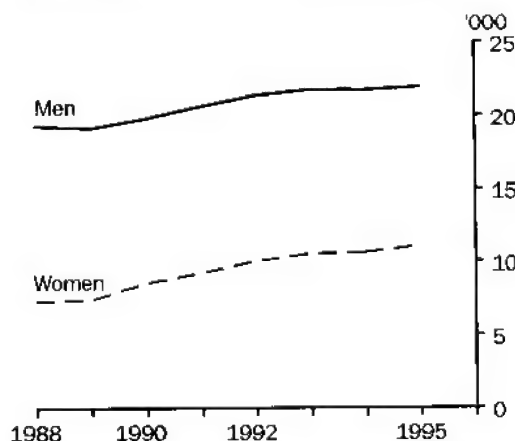
In 1995 there were 32,900 academics working in Australian universities. This was an increase from 25,900 in 1988.

Characteristics

Men accounted for 67% of all academics in 1995. However the proportion of female academics increased from 27% to 33% between 1988 and 1995.

Academics had an older age profile than people in other occupations. In 1995, the median age of academics was nearly 45 years compared to 40 years for all professionals and 37 years for all employed persons. The older age profile may be associated with the lengthy training period needed to enter this occupation¹.

Academics



Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics, Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

Defining academics and their work

Academics are members of staff at universities who undertake teaching, research, a combination of both functions, or who are responsible for staff undertaking such functions. Academics may include some staff who work part of their time at TAFE institutions. A small number of research-only staff who are not classified as academics, have been included when discussing the balance of teaching and research staff.

Academic teachers are those who perform a teaching-only function or a combination of both teaching and research. For those who do both, the balance of teaching time to research time is not known.

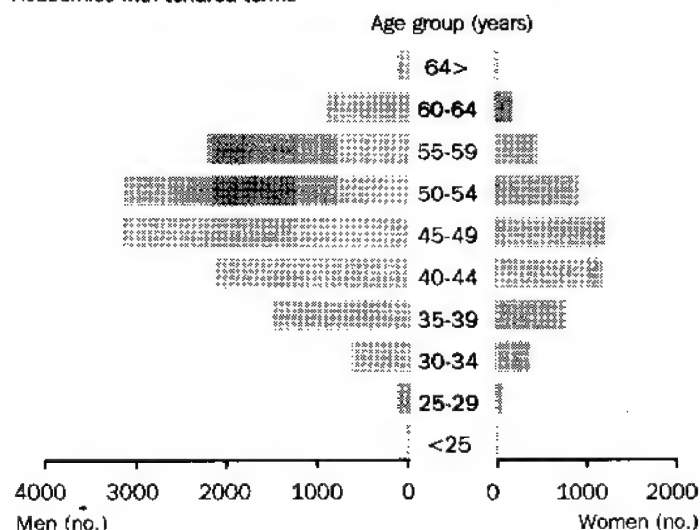
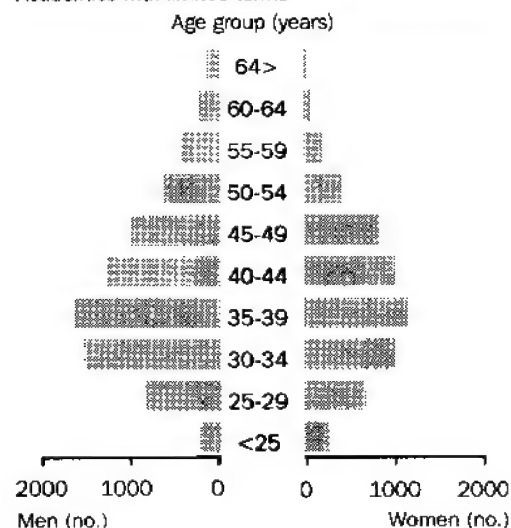
Student/teacher ratios are the ratio of full-time equivalent student units to full-time equivalent (FTE) academic teachers. While a useful measure of change in resources over time and between fields, care should be taken when interpreting this measure because the balance of teaching to research time is not known.

Academics who undertake teaching and/or research, work within *academic organisational units (AOUs)*. AOUs are grouped according to similar subject contents. They are referred to by various names including schools or departments, e.g. agriculture, education studies.

Fields of study are groups of courses of similar vocational emphasis or principal subject matter, e.g. parks and wildlife management, primary teacher education.

Academics are usually employed for a *limited term* which is an appointment for a fixed period of time, or a *tenable term* which is a permanent appointment that would normally last until retirement age. It is possible for academics to have substantive tenable term appointments while their current duties may be on limited terms. For example an academic may have tenure as a senior lecturer but be appointed to a limited term of three years as a Head of School.

Academic classification is the level of the current duties of an academic (rather than the level of duties of an academic's substantive position). Levels comprise: above senior lecturer, senior lecturer, lecturer, below lecturer.

Academics with tenured terms**Academics with limited terms**

Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.

Of the 49% of academics who were aged 45 years and over, 73% were men. Thus older men (those aged 45 years or over) made up more than one third of all academic staff.

Academic classification and term of appointment

The level of classification of academics and their term of appointment are closely related. Generally tenured terms of appointment are attached to the more senior academic levels. For example, in 1995, 80% of academics at the senior lecturer and above senior lecturer level

held tenure, compared to 12% at the below lecturer level.

Although the number of tenured positions increased from 17,000 to 19,000 between 1989 and 1995, their proportion declined over the period. In 1989, 64% of academic positions were tenured, compared to 58% in 1995. This decline has occurred across all academic classification levels except the below lecturer level. In 1989, 11% of below lecturer level positions were tenured compared to 12% in 1995.

There is also a relationship between the age and sex of an academic and their classification

Academic classification	Numbers '000	Distribution %	Median age years	Tenured term %	Persons % female
1989(a)	26.5	100.0	43	64.2	27.8
Above senior lecturer	4.5	17.1	51	85.5	7.9
Senior lecturer	6.8	25.5	47	89.8	14.4
Lecturer	10.3	38.9	41	63.4	34.3
Below lecturer	4.9	18.5	33	10.7	51.0
1995	32.9	100.0	45	57.6	33.5
Above senior lecturer	6.0	18.3	52	79.5	12.2
Senior lecturer	8.0	24.4	48	80.4	23.2
Lecturer	12.1	36.8	42	57.1	40.6
Below lecturer	6.7	20.5	35	11.6	51.9

(a) 1989 data used because of data inconsistencies in the 1988 *Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.

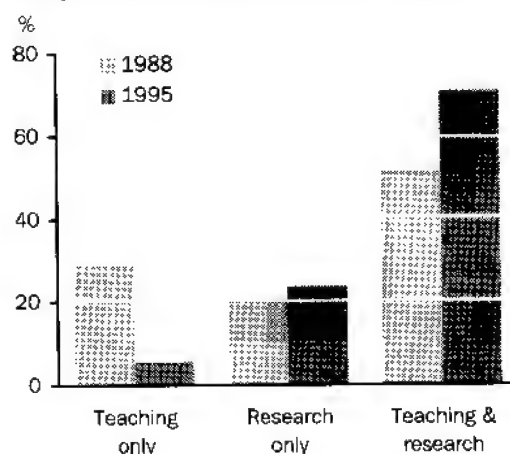
and tenure. For example, male academics are more likely than female academics to hold senior academic positions and hence tenured terms. This is partly related to the older age profile of male academics. In 1995, only 27% of academics with tenured terms were women. In comparison, among academics with limited terms, 42% were women.

The number of female academics has risen from 7,400 to 11,000 between 1989 and 1995. While most lecturers are appointed at the lower levels, the promotion rate of female academics appears to have exceeded their appointment rate, with increasing numbers of female academics at the senior lecturer and above senior lecturer levels. However, men still had greater representation than women at all levels except the below lecturer level.

Balance of research and teaching work

In the 1980s Australia had a binary system of higher education comprising colleges of advanced education and universities. In the late 1980s a unified national system of larger institutions was created. This was done to provide greater economies of scale and to create greater opportunities for students and staff. It also aimed to improve the balance between teaching and research work in all higher education institutions. Between 1988 and 1995 this balance changed. The proportion of all academics who performed research-only functions increased, from 20% to 24%. Moreover, only 6% of academics had a

Proportion of academics by function



Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.

teaching-only function in 1995 compared to 29% in 1988. In 1995, 71% of academics performed both functions.

Much of this change was the result of the restructuring of the colleges of advanced education (which mainly taught) into universities (where both teaching and research were carried out). For example, in 1988 in New South Wales, only 7% of academic staff in the former colleges were associated with research functions. By 1995, this had risen to 84%.

Academic teachers (FTE) academic teachers, 1995

Academic organisation unit (AOU)	Academic teachers		Student/teacher ratios
	no.	% female	ratio
Humanities	2 886	39.7	18.3
Social sciences	2 682	39.5	19.8
Education	2 396	43.4	18.6
Sciences	3 407	19.0	15.8
Maths, computing	2 180	19.0	19.3
Visual and performing arts	1 337	33.7	15.2
Engineering, processing	1 834	5.5	15.6
Health sciences	2 911	53.7	14.7
Administration, business, economics and law	4 266	29.5	25.4
Built environment	579	16.6	19.3
Agriculture and renewable resources	666	15.6	11.6
Total(a)	25 607	31.4	18.2

(a) Includes other academic teaching staff not categorised by AOU.

Source: Department of Employment, Education and Training, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics* and unpublished data.

Academic teaching

In 1988 there were on average 12 students to every full-time equivalent (FTE) academic teacher. By 1994 this had increased to 15. Because casual academic teachers were excluded from the calculations for 1995, student/teacher ratios for that year can not be directly compared with previous years. To overcome this problem, student/teacher ratios for 1994 can be recalculated excluding casual academic teachers to provide a comparison. The student/teacher ratios (excluding casual academic teachers) for 1994 and 1995 were 17 and 18 respectively, showing a continuation of the trend since 1988.

Student/teacher ratios differed significantly between academic organisational units (AOUs) in 1995. There were 25 students to every FTE teaching academic in the administration, business, economics and law AOU. In comparison those AOUs with the fewest students per teacher were agriculture and renewable resources (12), health sciences (15), and visual and performing arts (15). The humanities and social sciences had student/teacher ratios of 18 and 20 students per teacher respectively. Differences between AOUs may be partially explained by differences in teaching methods in the

different disciplines, e.g. laboratory work or lectures.

Male academic teachers generally outnumber female teachers in the various fields of study. This is so even in areas where women have dominated student numbers for many years (e.g. humanities and education). Only in health sciences were more than half (54%) of the FTE academic teachers women. The under-representation of female teachers is most evident in the field of engineering. In 1995, 5% of FTE academic teachers in that field, were female. This is largely explained by the fact that engineering has not attracted large numbers of female students. In 1995 only 13% of engineering students were female. Thus the pool from which female academic teachers are largely drawn has been relatively small. This may change in the future as increasing the number of female students in non-traditional areas such as engineering, has been a national goal since at least 1990.²

Academic research

In 1994 academics spent 10,200 person years on research. As part of their work load, academics also oversaw the research work of postgraduate students. In 1994, 22,000

Selected fields of research	Academics		Research funding(a)	
			1986	1994
	Person years	%	%	%
Natural sciences, technologies and engineering(b)	6 409	62.6	69.6	71.7
Medical and health sciences	2 025	19.8	15.4	20.5
Biological sciences	999	9.8	14.7	11.7
General engineering	527	5.2	n.a.	7.2
Information, computers and communication technology	515	5.0	n.a.	5.0
Chemical sciences	436	4.3	6.1	5.3
Agricultural sciences	412	4.0	6.5	6.0
Mathematical sciences	404	3.9	n.a.	2.5
Social sciences and humanities(c)	3 822	37.4	30.4	28.3
Humanities	1 126	11.0	11.6	7.9
Education	578	5.7	2.8	4.2
Economics	381	3.7	4.1	2.9
Psychology	234	2.3	n.a.	2.1
Accounting and finance	211	2.1	n.a.	1.2
Total	10 230	100.0	100.0	100.0

(a) Data may not be strictly comparable as categories for fields of research changed slightly between 1986 and 1994.

(b) Includes physical science, earth sciences and applied science and technology.

(c) Includes political sciences, sociology, law, and other social sciences.

Source: Research and Experimental Development: Higher Education Organisations, Australia (Cat. no. 8111.0).

person years were spent on research by postgraduate students.

Research within the broad field of natural sciences, technologies and engineering attracted the most research effort (63% of all person years and 72% of total research funding). The share of funding going to these fields has increased slightly from 70% in 1986, with substantial increases evident in the field of medical and health sciences (the largest field of research). Those fields which received a lesser share of funding in 1994 than 1986 included: biological sciences; humanities; and economics.

Some of these changes may have been affected by the ability of different research areas to attract private funding. Government reforms to the higher education sector in the late 1980s have resulted in a larger share of research being privately funded. In 1986, 7% of research was funded by sources other than the federal government (such as State governments or private business) and by 1994 this had increased to 11%. A further 18% of research funding in 1994 was through competitive research grants from the Commonwealth.

In 1993 there were 50,800 publications produced in universities³. This was equivalent to 1.6 publications per full-time equivalent academic researcher. The most prolific academics were those from higher education

institutions in Victoria and the Northern Territory both with an average of 2 publications per academic, and New South Wales with 1.8 publications per academic. However, the amount of research published varied greatly between institutions even within States. The main publications produced were journal articles and conference papers. Only 4% of all the publications produced were books.

There is some debate as to whether numbers of publications produced by academics is a reasonable measure of academic effort, as it does not account for the time spent on, nor the value of, research.⁴

Endnotes

- 1 Department of Employment, Education and Training 1990, *Study of the Labour Market for Academics*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 2 Department of Employment, Education and Training 1990, *A Fair Chance for All: Higher Education that's within Everyone's Reach*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC) 1995, *Research Capability and Performance in Australian Universities*, AVCC, Canberra.
- 4 Maslen, G. and Slattery, L. 1994, *Why Our Universities are Failing: Crisis in the Clever Country*, Wilkinson Books, Melbourne.

Education and employment

ATTAINMENT

In 1996, 42% of those aged 15–64 had post-school qualifications. People with post-school qualifications were more likely to be employed than those without them.

The last 20 years has seen a series of rapid changes to the workplace, both in Australia and in many other countries. Increasing use of technology and other changes (such as tariff reductions, industrial relations reforms and the internationalisation of product markets) have been factors underpinning changes to the overall occupational structure of the labour force. These changes have manifested themselves in a shift towards the service sector and away from manufacturing and production industries. (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Changing industries, changing jobs, pp. 93–98).

Changes in the level of demand for particular occupations have been a major cause of the increased levels of unemployment, especially for people with few skills or those whose qualifications no longer match labour market needs. These shifts and changes have increased the demand for trained employees, with the skills to perform a wide variety of tasks.

One response to the more competitive labour market has been an increased participation in post-school education, and this increase has not been limited to young people who have just left secondary education. Throughout their lives, people, especially women, are increasingly participating in post-school

Post-school qualifications

Post-school qualifications are recognised educational qualifications gained by a person after leaving school such as a trade qualification, certificate, diploma or degree.

This review uses data from a supplementary survey run in association with the May 1996 labour force survey. Information was collected about the educational attainment and transition from education to work of people aged 15–64.

Following the introduction of the ABS Classification of Qualifications (ABSCQ) in 1993, courses of less than one semester in duration ceased being counted as post-school qualifications.

education either to increase their existing skill level or to retrain for a new job. This trend has been supported by the expansion of the higher education system especially since the late 1980s. Some employers encourage their staff to study by giving them access to paid study leave and other assistance, as well as providing in-house training programs (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Employee training, pp. 81–84).

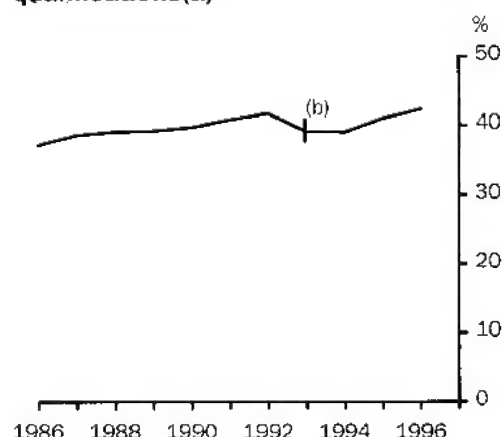
The skill level of the population has been further bolstered by the intake of skilled migrants. Among migrants aged 18 and over who arrived in Australia between 1971 and 1993, almost half (49%) arrived with post-school qualifications (see *Australian Social Trends 1996*, Migrants and education, pp. 86–91).

The upshot of these trends is that the proportion of people aged 15–64 who have post-school qualifications has increased from 37% in 1986 to 42% in 1996. It is likely that this increase would have been somewhat higher if the classification of qualifications used to measure these changes had remained the same over the decade. In 1993, courses of less than one semester in duration ceased to be counted as post-school qualifications.

Post-school qualifications

While over 40% of people aged 15–64 had post-school qualifications in 1996, the proportion was not the same for all age groups. People in older age groups were less likely to hold post-school qualifications than

Proportion of people with post-school qualifications(a)



(a): Data refers to May each year except 1986–88 which refers to February.

(b): Break in series in 1993 (see box).

Source: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).

Proportion of people with post-school qualifications, 1996

Age group (years)	Men	Women	Total
	%	%	%
15-19	3.5	4.7	4.1
20-24	38.6	42.7	40.6
25-34	54.4	45.9	50.1
35-44	58.5	46.1	52.2
45-54	54.3	37.8	46.2
55-64	47.3	26.9	37.1
Total	47.1	37.4	42.3

Source: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (Cat. no. 6227.0).

people aged 25-44. In 1996, 37% of people aged 55-64 had post-school qualifications compared to 50% of those aged 25-34 and 52% of those aged 35-44. These differences are related to factors such as access to education in the past as well as changes in industry structure and the skill requirements of occupations.

Men aged 15-64 are more likely than women to hold post-school qualifications. In 1996, 47% of males had a post-school qualification compared to 37% of females. This may be due to greater opportunities for men in areas requiring skilled vocational qualifications. It may also be related to women's greater responsibility for child-rearing which acts to hinder them from pursuing further education. The difference between men and women is highest among those in the older age groups. This reflects the fact that earlier generations of women (those reaching adulthood in the 1950s and 1960s) were less likely to undertake post-school education or enter the labour force. This pattern, however, has changed. Among young people, women are more likely than men to have a post-school qualification. In 1996, 43% of women aged 20-24 held a post-school qualification, compared to 39% of men the same age.

Field of study

In 1996, the most common fields of study among all people who had post-school qualifications were engineering (31%) and business and administration (21%).

There are differences between men and women in the type of qualification gained and field of study. Among men, the most common fields in which qualifications were held were engineering (52% compared to 4% for women), followed by business and

Field of qualification	Men	Women	Total
	%	%	%
Engineering, architecture and building	52.0	4.2	30.9
Business and administration	13.0	31.4	21.1
Health	3.8	20.2	11.0
Society and culture	8.8	13.8	11.0
Education	4.8	16.4	9.9
Natural and physical sciences	6.5	4.9	5.8
Agriculture and related fields	3.7	1.0	2.5
Miscellaneous fields	7.4	8.1	7.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

(a) Refers to the main field of study of those who have a post-school qualification.

Source: Transition from Education to Work (unpublished data).

administration (13%) and society and culture (9%). Among women, the most common fields were business and administration (31%), followed by health (20%) and education (16%). Among people with post-school qualifications, men were also more likely than women to have skilled vocational qualifications such as trade certificates (49% compared to 14%). This difference may reflect the gender segregation in occupations, as men are more likely than women to work in industries such as manufacturing, construction and mining, which require skilled vocational training (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Gender differences in higher education, pp. 90-93).

The fields in which people undertake study have been changing over time in response to changes in the workplace. For example, between 1987 and 1996 the number of higher education students studying business administration and economics increased by 98%, and the number studying arts, humanities and social sciences increased by 53%. Meanwhile, the number studying education fell by 2%¹.

Job search experience

As might be expected, highly qualified people tend to have better opportunities for finding work than those with no qualifications. This is evident when comparing differences in duration of unemployment by qualification level. In 1996 the average duration of unemployment was 35 weeks for those with a

Educational attainment and employment in 1996

<i>Educational attainment</i>	<i>Proportion employed</i>	<i>Unemployment rate</i>	<i>Mean duration of unemployment</i>
	%	%	weeks
Degree or higher	84.6	3.8	35.4
Diploma	79.5	5.2	37.5
Skilled vocational	82.4	5.5	46.9
Basic vocational	69.4	8.6	49.1
Completed secondary school	68.2	10.0	42.0
Did not complete secondary school	59.0	11.4	59.6
Total(a)	70.3	8.1	48.4

(a) Includes people who never attended school.

Source: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).

degree or higher and 38 weeks for those with a diploma. The average duration of unemployment for those who did not complete the highest level of secondary school was 60 weeks.

People with skilled or basic vocational qualifications had slightly longer durations of unemployment (47 and 49 weeks, respectively) than those who had only completed the highest level of secondary school (42 weeks). This is most likely because those who completed their schooling would have included recent school leavers who had only been in the labour force for a short time. Nonetheless, both of these groups still had shorter durations of unemployment than those who did not complete the highest level of secondary school.

Attachment to the labour force

In 1996 employment was highest among those with a degree or higher (85%), followed by those with a skilled vocational qualification (82%) and those with a diploma (80%). Excluding students still at school, employment was lowest for those who did not complete secondary school (59%).

Differences in employment levels among groups according to their level of education reflects the link between education and work. This relationship is even more evident when seen in terms of the educational attainment of people according to their level of attachment to the labour force.

In 1996, 48% of people in the labour force had post-school qualifications, compared to 25% of those not in the labour force. These differences are largely explained by the fact that groups who are less likely to have post-school qualifications (such as full-time

students, older women and people aged 55–64 who include early retirees) are also less likely to be employed or looking for work.

Among those in the labour force, people working full time were more likely to have post-school qualifications than those working part time, while unemployed people were least likely to have post-school qualifications. The proportions of people with post-school qualifications differed substantially between these groups. In 1996, 54% of people aged 15–64 working full time had post-school qualifications compared to 37% of those working part time. This difference is partly explained by the prevalence of students, who have yet to qualify, holding part-time jobs. Another explanation is that industries with lower educational requirements, such as the service and retail industries, offer more part-time work (see *Australian Social Trends 1997, Changing industries, changing jobs*, pp. 93–98).

Among those unemployed in 1996, almost two thirds (63%) did not have post-school qualifications. This was particularly true for those who were long-term unemployed (unemployed for 52 weeks or longer). In 1996 there were 203,000 people who were long-term unemployed. 69% of these people did not have post-school qualifications and 50% had not completed the highest level of secondary school.

The association between educational attainment and employment status is particularly apparent among Indigenous people. In June 1994, the unemployment rate among Indigenous people was 38% compared to 10% for the total Australian population. This is partly a reflection of the lower educational attainment of Indigenous people. In 1994, 18% of Indigenous people aged

Educational attainment	Employed		Unemployed		Total in the labour force	Not in the labour force	Total
	Full time	Part time	Long term	Total			
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
With post-school qualifications	54.2	36.8	27.8	30.5	48.2	24.9	42.3
Without post-school qualifications(a)	45.7	53.9	69.4	63.1	49.1	62.3	52.5
Still at school(b)	0.0	9.3	2.8	6.4	2.7	12.8	5.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(a) Includes people who never attended school.

(b) Includes those attending school who are actively looking for work and are ready to start within two weeks.

Source: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).

15–64 who were not attending school had completed a post-school qualification, compared to 41% of all Australians. Indigenous people are also more likely than all Australians to have never attended school (see *Australian Social Trends 1996*, The education of Indigenous people, pp. 75–78; Work and Indigenous people, pp. 101–104).

Industry

The proportion of employed people with post-school qualifications varies according to the industry in which they work and the mix of occupations within each industry. In 1996, the education industry had the highest proportion of people with post-school qualifications (78%). This is related to the types of occupations in this industry group, such as teachers, lecturers etc., all of which have mandatory qualifications. This was followed by electricity, gas and water (67%) and health and community services (66%). Agriculture, forestry and fishing, and retail trade were the industries with the lowest proportion of people with post-school qualifications (31% each).

Trends and projections

The proportion of employed people aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications increased from 45% in 1986 to 50% in 1996. At the same time, the proportion of unemployed people with post-school qualifications increased from 26% to 30% and of those who were not in the labour force, from 22% to 25%. These increases are due to the overall increase in the proportion of people with post-school qualifications, which has raised the skill levels of the population generally.

The structure of the labour force is expected to continue changing over the next decade. Projections prepared by the former Department of Employment, Education and Training indicated that industry growth over the next two decades would continue to be concentrated in the service sector industries, including the finance, health, personal services, retail and accommodation and restaurant industries². Employment was projected to grow more slowly or fall in many of the manufacturing industries, in line with trends over the recent past.

At the same time, the proportion of people in the labour force with post-school qualifications was projected to increase over the next 10–15 years. This should occur even if enrolments in higher education remain constant. Much of the increase would result from older people, many of whom are without post-school qualifications, moving into retirement. As a consequence this group will make up a smaller proportion of the labour force.

In addition, many who hold a post-school qualification will need to search for work over a broader range of jobs during the next decade. This will apply particularly to those with a degree in a field of study where demand for graduates decreases.

1 Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs 1996, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics 1996*, AGPS, Canberra.

2 Department of Employment, Education and Training 1995, *Australia's Workforce 2005: Jobs in the Future*, AGPS, Canberra.

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In 1966, 46% of workers in Australia were employed in production industries. Now, 30 years later, that proportion has diminished to 28%.

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In 1994-95, 96% of non-agricultural private sector businesses in Australia had fewer than 20 employed people. These businesses contributed almost one third of non-farm industry gross production.

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In 1993, the labour force participation rate for people aged 15-64 with a profound or severe handicap was 33% compared to 77% for those without a handicap.

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In 1994-95, 19% of Australians undertook some voluntary work. Women were more likely than men to volunteer, and people living outside of capital cities were more likely to volunteer than those living within them.

Work — national summary



LABOUR FORCE	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Total labour force	'000	7 451	7 679	7 867	8 083	8 346	8 491	8 518	8 574	8 696	8 888	9 066
Participation rate	%	61.4	62.0	62.2	62.6	63.5	63.6	63.0	62.6	62.8	63.3	63.7
Male participation rate	%	75.9	75.6	75.3	75.2	75.5	75.3	74.4	73.9	73.6	73.8	73.9
Female participation rate	%	47.4	48.7	49.4	50.4	51.9	52.3	51.9	51.7	52.2	53.2	53.8
Women (of labour force)	%	39.1	39.8	40.3	40.8	41.4	41.7	41.9	41.9	42.3	42.7	42.9

PAID WORK	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Total employed	'000	6 860	7 044	7 256	7 549	7 832	7 782	7 637	7 634	7 781	8 093	8 300
Part-time employed (of total employed)	%	18.3	19.2	19.8	20.1	20.9	21.7	22.9	23.5	23.8	24.4	24.6
Employment/population ratio	%	56.6	56.9	57.4	58.5	59.6	58.3	56.5	55.8	56.2	57.7	58.3
Employed in service industries (of total employed)	%	r66.6	r67.2	r67.7	r67.7	r68.7	r69.5	r70.9	r70.6	r70.9	71.4	72.1
Employed in manufacturing industries (of total employed)	%	r16.5	r16.0	r16.0	r15.9	r15.3	r14.7	r14.2	r14.2	r14.0	13.8	13.4
Part-time employed who prefer more hours (of part-time employed)	%	16.9	18.4	18.7	17.6	18.0	21.7	26.4	29.2	28.3	26.1	26.2
Average hours worked per week by full-time workers	hours	39.1	39.7	39.7	39.7	39.8	39.9	40.6	40.3	40.7	40.9	40.5
Average weekly hours of paid overtime per employee	hours	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Trade union membership rate	%	45.6	n.a.	41.6	n.a.	40.5	n.a.	39.6	n.a.	35.0	n.a.	31.1
Working days lost due to industrial disputes per 1,000 employees	days	242	223	269	190	207	248	147	100	76	79	131

UNEMPLOYMENT	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Total unemployed	'000	591.5	635.1	610.5	534.6	513.7	709.0	881.7	940.5	915.5	794.6	766.7
Long-term unemployed	'000	172.1	176.8	169.1	145.6	116.4	149.5	255.7	336.3	334.8	273.6	226.5
Unemployment rate	%	7.9	8.3	7.8	6.6	6.2	8.4	10.4	11.0	10.5	8.9	8.5
Youth unemployment rate	%	19.9	20.3	18.9	15.7	14.9	20.0	23.8	24.4	23.8	20.9	20.7
Youth unemployment/population ratio	%	12.1	12.3	11.2	9.4	9.1	11.7	13.3	13.5	13.3	12.3	12.3
Adult unemployment/population ratio	%	4.0	4.2	4.0	3.5	3.3	4.6	5.8	6.2	5.9	5.0	4.7
Median duration of unemployment	weeks	19.3	18.6	17.7	15.9	12.3	14.3	23.4	27.4	27.5	23.8	20.3

NOT IN LABOUR FORCE	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Discouraged jobseekers	'000	83.6	94.4	83.8	76.1	100.9	138.2	145.6	147.4	106.5	111.9	118.9

Reference periods:

All data are annual averages for the year ending 30th June except for average weekly hours of paid overtime per employee (calendar year), trade union membership rate (August of year), working days lost due to industrial disputes per 1,000 employees (calendar year), and discouraged jobseekers (September of year).

Work — State summary



LABOUR FORCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total labour force	'000	1995-96	3 021	2 267	1 673	726	898	223	88	171	9 066
Participation rate	%	1995-96	62.6	63.5	64.8	61.9	66.2	60.7	70.3	73.7	63.7
Male participation rate	%	1995-96	72.8	73.8	75.1	71.7	76.5	71.1	77.1	80.8	73.9
Female participation rate	%	1995-96	52.6	53.6	54.7	52.4	56.0	50.7	63.2	66.8	53.8
Women (of labour force)	%	1995-96	42.8	43.1	42.6	43.1	42.5	42.4	44.3	46.2	42.9

PAID WORK	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total employed	'000	1995-96	2 786	2 068	1 518	657	830	201	81	158	8 300
Part-time employed (of total employed)	%	1995-96	23.2	24.8	24.5	27.7	25.5	27.8	22.3	25.3	24.6
Employment/population ratio	%	1995-96	57.7	57.9	58.8	56.0	61.2	54.7	65.3	68.1	58.3
Employed in service industries (of total employed)	%	1995-96	73.1	70.8	71.6	70.2	71.2	70.9	80.2	89.7	72.1
Employed in manufacturing industries (of total employed)	%	1995-96	12.9	17.1	12.0	15.2	10.1	11.9	3.4	3.7	13.4
Part-time employed who prefer more hours (of part-time employed)	%	1995-96	24.9	26.2	27.7	29.5	25.1	28.2	21.8	25.6	26.2
Average hours worked per week by full-time workers	hours	1995-96	40.2	40.2	41.3	40.2	41.2	39.2	40.5	38.5	40.5
Average weekly hours of paid overtime per employee	hours	1996	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.2	0.8	1.5	0.5	1.1

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Trade union membership rate	%	1996	30.7	31.9	31.4	35.1	25.0	39.3	22.5	33.4	31.1
Working days lost due to industrial disputes per 1,000 employees	days	1996	162	113	162	80	68	78	61	148	131

UNEMPLOYMENT	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total unemployed	'000	1995-96	234.9	198.6	155.2	68.6	68.2	22.3	6.2	12.8	766.7
Long-term unemployed	'000	1995-96	75.0	63.4	37.7	24.0	14.1	8.4	1.3	2.7	226.5
Unemployment rate	%	1995-96	7.8	8.8	9.3	9.5	7.6	10.0	7.1	7.5	8.5
Youth unemployment rate	%	1995-96	19.2	21.8	21.4	26.9	17.1	21.6	17.3	24.9	20.7
Youth unemployment/population ratio	%	1995-96	11.0	12.1	13.7	15.5	11.2	12.8	10.3	16.2	12.3
Adult unemployment/population ratio	%	1995-96	4.3	4.9	5.2	5.0	4.4	5.4	4.3	4.3	4.7
Median duration of unemployment	weeks	1995-96	21.8	21.7	16.2	26.4	13.3	26.9	11.9	14.8	20.3

NOT IN LABOUR FORCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Discouraged jobseekers	'000	1996	42.5	30.3	20.4	11.3	9.7	2.2	*1.1	1.3	118.9

Reference periods:

All data are annual averages for the year ending 30th June except for average weekly hours of paid overtime per employee (calendar year), trade union membership rate (August of year), working days lost due to industrial disputes per 1,000 employees (calendar year), and discouraged jobseekers (September of year).

Work — definitions and references

Average hours worked per week by full-time workers — average hours worked, including overtime, by full-time workers during the survey reference week. The hours are those stated by survey respondents and are not necessarily the hours paid for.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Average weekly hours paid overtime per employee — total overtime hours paid for divided by the total number of employees, including those who were not paid for any overtime. Overtime is time worked in excess of award, standard or agreed hours of work for which payment is received. Figures are the annual average of quarterly figures.
Reference: *Job Vacancies and Overtime, Australia* (Cat. no. 6354.0).

Discouraged jobseekers — people who wanted to work and who were available to start work within four weeks but whose main reason for not taking active steps to find work was that they believed they would not be able to find a job for reasons of: age; language or ethnicity; schooling; training; skills or experience; no jobs in their locality or line of work; or they considered that there were no jobs at all available.
Reference: *Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6220.0).

Employed — persons aged 15 and over who worked during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Employees — employed persons who worked for wages or salary in the reference period.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Employment/population ratio — the number of employed persons in a group expressed as a proportion of the civilian population in the same group.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Full-time workers — employed persons who usually worked 35 hours a week or more and others who, although usually working less than 35 hours a week, worked 35 hours or more during the reference week.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Labour force — all persons aged 15 and over who, during the reference week, were employed, or who were not employed but had actively looked for work and were available to start work.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Long-term unemployed — people unemployed for 52 weeks or longer.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Manufacturing industries — the manufacturing division of the *Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC)* (Cat. no. 1292.0).
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Median duration of unemployment — the period of unemployment at which half of the unemployed had been unemployed for more weeks and half had been unemployed for fewer weeks.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Participation rate — for any group, the labour force expressed as a percentage of the civilian population in the same group.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Part-time employed — employed persons who usually worked less than 35 hours a week and who did so during the reference week.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Part-time employed who prefer more hours — part-time employed who indicated they would prefer to work more hours.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Service industries — the combination of the following divisions of the *Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC)* (Cat. no. 1292.0): wholesale trade; retail trade; accommodation, cafes and restaurants; transport and storage; communication services; finance and insurance; property and business services; government administration and defence; education; health and community services; cultural and recreational services; and personal and other services.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Trade union membership rate — the number of employees with membership in a trade union in connection with their main job divided by total employees.
Reference: *Trade Union Members, Australia* (Cat. no. 6325.0).

Unemployed — persons aged 15 and over who were not employed during the reference week, but who had actively looked for work and were available to start work.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Unemployment rate — the number unemployed expressed as a proportion of the labour force. Separate rates may be calculated for sub-groups of the population.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Working days lost due to industrial disputes — total working days lost by employees due to industrial disputes during the year.
Reference: *Industrial Disputes, Australia* (Cat. no. 6322.0).

Youth unemployment/population ratio — the number of unemployed people aged 15–19, expressed as a proportion of all people aged 15–19.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Youth unemployment rate — the number of unemployed people aged 15–19, expressed as a proportion of people aged 15–19 in the labour force.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Changing industries, changing jobs

PAID WORK

In 1966, 46% of workers in Australia were employed in production industries. Now, 30 years later, that proportion has diminished to 28%.

Over the past few decades the Australian labour force has changed substantially. The shift in labour demand arising from new technology, microeconomic reforms (such as tariff reductions, industrial relations reforms and changes to standards and regulations) and internationalisation of product markets have all contributed to this change. Another factor affecting the demand for labour has been the adoption of new management strategies that emphasise work force flexibility, particularly increased use of part-time and casual employees. Employment has grown significantly in the service sector, particularly in the property and business division and the accommodation, cafes and restaurants division. On a smaller scale, changes in home life have led to an increased demand for services to replace in part those traditionally carried out within the home, such as child care and meal preparation. Along with this growth in the service sector there has been a decline in employment in production industries like manufacturing and mining¹.

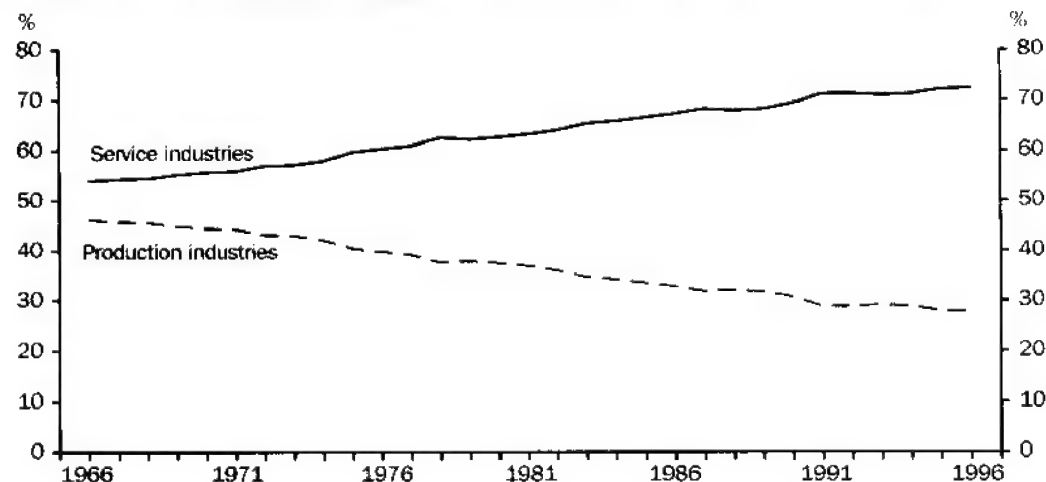
In addition to changes in the relative shares of people employed in different industries, changes in processes and products within industries have led to a shift in the sorts of jobs that employers now offer. These jobs generally require employees with a greater level of skill. Technology has been one of the main agents of change. Computerisation, mechanisation and automation have been

Industry and occupation classifications

The classification of occupations and industries in the review is based on standard ABS classifications. However, analysis is limited by changes in those classifications. The *Australian Standard Industrial Classification* (ASIC) was introduced in 1969. Since then, the changes in industrial structure, described in this review, have led to the obsolescence of that classification system. Consequently, in 1994, the *Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification* (ANZSIC) was introduced. This classification system provides more detailed information on the service sector, but the time period for historical analysis is limited because only data from 1984 onwards have been re-classified.

The *Australian Standard Classification of Occupations* (ASCO) (First Edition), used in this review, was introduced in 1986. This classification system is based on the kind of work done, defined in terms of skill level and skill specialisation. The skill level of an occupation is a function of the range and complexity of the tasks performed. Skill specialisation is a function of the knowledge required, tools and equipment used, materials worked on and goods and services produced in relation to the tasks performed. At the broadest level of the classification there are eight major groups disaggregated primarily according to skill level. In May 1996 a second edition of ASCO was introduced. This edition refines the definition of skill levels and places an increased emphasis on occupation entry requirements.

Proportion of all employed people in the production and service industries



Source: *Labour Force, Australia, Historical Summary 1966 to 1984* (Cat. no. 6204.0) and *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Production and service industries

In this review most of the industry information is presented at the broad division level of the ANZSIC industry classification. The use of divisions only is a simplification since some of the production industries have service components which, for this review, are ignored.

incorporated into the work place with the common result of reducing the need for labour and creating new types of jobs¹.

Another major influence on industrial restructuring has been government economic policy. Generally, the Australian economy has always been vulnerable to the world economy, particularly to commodity prices and overseas competition. For most years since the early 1970s Australia has spent more on importing goods and services than it has earned from exporting them (known as a goods and services deficit). This led to government economic initiatives in the 1980s aimed at creating a more efficient and less

sheltered manufacturing sector that could earn export dollars. These initiatives included gradual cutting of tariffs, floating the Australian dollar, liberalisation of foreign investment and allowing foreign banks into Australia².

The decline of employment in production industries

In 1966, 46% of all employed people in Australia worked in production industries: on the land or sea, down mines, in the factories or on building sites. Now, 30 years later, that proportion has diminished to 28%. During that 30-year period nearly all employment growth has been in the service sector, which increased from 2.6 million to 6.0 million workers. The number of workers in production industries remained at between 2.0 and 2.5 million. The production industries were, and still are, mainly the preserve of men working full time. Overall, women occupied 23% of production industry jobs in 1995-96, only 1.5 percentage points

Employed people by industry 1995-96

Industry division	1995-96	Change between 1985-86 and 1995-96			
	Employed people	Employed people	Percent- age change	Proportion working part time	Proportion of workers female
	'000	'000	%	% points	% points
Production industries	2 299.7	15.8	0.7	3.4	1.5
Construction	600.3	123.0	25.8	3.3	1.4
Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	421.9	-6.0	-1.4	3.7	2.6
Manufacturing	1 111.4	-17.4	-1.5	2.7	0.8
Mining	85.3	-20.5	-19.4	1.5	1.9
Electricity, gas and water	80.8	-63.3	-43.9	1.9	8.5
Service industries	5 987.5	1 421.9	31.1	6.5	3.3
Property and business services	795.8	344.1	76.2	3.9	2.2
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	380.6	152.3	66.7	2.9	-0.1
Cultural and recreational services	187.6	60.9	48.1	6.2	2.5
Personal and other services	314.9	93.5	42.2	2.2	-4.6
Health and community services	757.0	185.8	32.5	7.4	2.5
Retail trade	1 226.8	279.0	29.4	10.7	0.6
Education	584.7	132.4	29.3	2.0	5.0
Wholesale trade	499.1	73.2	17.2	2.8	2.9
Government administration and defence	378.7	48.4	14.7	4.0	5.8
Finance and insurance	315.6	21.2	7.2	6.2	5.4
Transport and storage	388.3	24.4	6.7	4.1	5.3
Communication services	158.4	6.7	4.4	4.5	6.6
Total	8 287.2	1 437.7	21.0	6.3	4.2

Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

more than in 1985–86. In comparison, women occupied 43% of jobs overall in 1995–96, four percentage points more than in 1985–86.

Manufacturing has been the major employer among production industries since the 1940s. However, by the mid 1970s employment in manufacturing started to decline. The main cause of this was a slowing of growth due to the world-wide effects of the rise in oil prices in 1973–74. At the same time new social reforms, wage rises, and a devaluation of the dollar saw a great increase in the rate of inflation. These changes affected all sectors of the Australian economy, particularly manufacturing, which had to face increasing competition from the newly industrialised countries of Asia³.

Australian manufacturers had been protected from international competition by high tariff barriers since federation. However, by the mid 1960s this was increasingly seen as a retrograde policy that was leading to inefficiency and stagnation. The need for reform led to government economic initiatives in the mid 1980s that included gradual cutting of tariffs and liberalisation of foreign investment. These were intended to create a more efficient and less sheltered manufacturing sector that could earn export dollars².

Since 1985–86 the overall number of people employed in the production industries has remained relatively static at about 2.3 million. During the period 1985–86 to 1995–96, the construction industry grew, gaining about 123,000 workers (26% growth). This growth largely offsets the declines experienced in the other production industries. The greatest reduction in employment occurred in the electricity, gas and water supply industries where the number of workers decreased by 63,300, a decline of 44%.

During the period 1985–86 to 1995–96 overall employment in manufacturing industries continued to decline. The number of workers employed decreased by 1.5% (17,400 workers). The largest percentage decline occurred in the textiles, clothing, footwear and leather industries, the core manufacturing industries in the early part of this century. Employment in this group declined by 18% (22,200 workers) between 1985–86 and 1995–96. Employment in machinery and equipment manufacturing also declined, by 10% (26,300 workers). The greatest percentage gain in workers, 25% (16,100 workers), occurred in the non-specific group of other manufacturing

which includes the manufacturing of prefabricated buildings and furniture. The only other manufacturing groups to increase their employment levels were printing, publishing and recorded media manufacturing (14% increase, 13,200 workers) and food, beverages and tobacco manufacturing (12% increase, 19,500 workers).

The growth of employment in service industries

The growth of employment in the service sector is not a recent phenomenon. The sector has grown steadily throughout the century, from about 50% of employment in the early part of this century³ to 72% in 1995–96. This pattern of growth is also found in other industrialised countries⁴. Factors contributing to this growth include the increase in part-time and casual work and the increase in services that replace work previously done in the home, such as child care, cleaning, gardening, maintenance, food preparation etc. Another important influence has been the recognition that many sectors of the service industry have the potential to earn export income⁵. For example, there has been vigorous promotion of Australia's tourism and education industry. (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Overseas students, pp. 75–77 and Travel and tourism, pp. 156–160).

Between 1985–86 and 1995–96 the number of workers in the service industries increased by 31%, an increase of 1.4 million jobs. The service industries employed slightly more females than males (51% female in 1995–96). Overall, part-time work was more common in service industries, with 29% working part time compared to 13% in production industries. However, part-time workers were not evenly distributed across all service industries. There were higher concentrations in industries such as accommodation, cafes and restaurants (45% part time) and in the retail trade (42% part time). Increased employment in the service sector has been the major impetus to the recent growth in part-time employment, particularly among females (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Trends in part-time work, pp. 103–108).

The service industry with the highest employment growth was property and business. The number of workers in this division grew by 76%, an increase of about 344,100 (this division includes services such as property operators and developers, real

Proportion of blue-collar workers in each industry

Industry division	1986 -87	1995 -96	Change (a)
	%	%	'000
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	70.9	69.9	22.2
Mining	72.5	67.7	-16.3
Manufacturing	70.6	65.7	-71.2
Electricity, gas and water	59.8	44.7	-43.2
Construction	74.6	72.6	25.7
Wholesale trade	33.3	32.3	18.1
Retail trade	30.2	29.7	68.7
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	39.2	40.1	52.1
Transport and storage	59.2	55.5	-8.8
Communication services	38.0	31.6	-7.7
Finance and insurance	3.2	1.9	-3.6
Property and business services	20.1	22.7	68.3
Government administration and defence	28.9	21.6	-14.9
Education	10.5	6.9	-9.7
Health and community services	24.9	19.9	2.5
Cultural and recreational services	21.7	20.2	9.9
Personal and other services	42.1	36.9	10.6
Total	40.6	35.7	102.5

(a) Increase or decrease in the number of blue-collar employees within the industry division.

Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

estate agents, technical, computing, legal, accounting and marketing services).

The second fastest percentage growth (67%, 152,300 more workers) occurred in the accommodation, cafes and restaurants division followed by the cultural and recreational services division (48%, 60,900 more workers). Although the retail trade ranked sixth in percentage growth (29%), it ranked second in the actual number of new jobs, 279,000.

The effect on occupations

All these broad patterns of industrial change have an effect on the jobs available today. This employment shift has, in general, reduced the opportunities for blue-collar workers and

Blue and white-collar occupations

Blue-collar occupations in this review refer to the following major groups of the Australian Standard Classification of Occupations: tradespersons; plant and machine operators, and drivers; and labourers and related workers. These major groups are predominantly associated with trades and lower-skilled jobs that are often physical.

White-collar occupations in this review refer to managers and administrators; professionals; para-professionals; clerks; sales persons and personal service workers. These major groups are predominantly associated with higher education and specific skills or with lower-skilled jobs that are mainly social rather than physical.

increased the opportunities for white-collar workers.

Over the period 1985-86 to 1995-96 most employment growth occurred in white-collar occupations. The number of workers in white-collar jobs increased by about one million while the number in blue-collar jobs increased by about 100,000. This difference was spread across most industries, with nearly all industries having a reduced proportion of blue-collar workers. The electricity, gas and water supply and the government administration and defence industries experienced proportionally the largest decreases: 15 percentage points and 7 percentage points respectively over the ten-year period. However, it was the manufacturing sector that actually lost the most blue-collar jobs over the period (71,200).

The top ten fastest-growing occupation groups between 1985-86 and 1995-96 reflect the increased demand for white-collar workers as opposed to blue-collar workers. The greatest percentage growth (an increase of 91% or 102,800 workers) occurred in the personal service worker classification (this group includes child-care workers; enrolled nurses; dental nurses; home companions and aides; travel stewards and tourist guides). In rank order, the next four fastest growing occupations were business professionals (90%, 143,600 more workers); medical and science technical officers and technicians (86%, 18,400 more workers); miscellaneous professionals, which includes economists, psychologists, librarians, education researchers and other social scientists (59%, 21,500 more workers); social professionals, which includes social workers, counsellors, lawyers and ministers of religion (51%, 26,000 more workers).

Occupation group	Change between 1986-87 and 1995-96	
	Number of workers	Percentage change
	'000	%
Personal service workers	102.8	91.3
Business professionals	143.6	89.9
Medical and science technical officers and technicians	18.4	85.8
Miscellaneous professionals	21.5	58.8
Social professionals	26.0	51.2
Data processing and business machine operators	39.5	49.6
Other teachers and instructors	39.9	48.8
Managing supervisors (other business)	36.5	43.8
Tellers, cashiers and ticket salespersons	50.9	42.5
Receptionists, telephonists and messengers	68.8	41.8

a) Minor occupation groups of the Australian Standard Classification of Occupations.

Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

Conversely, the majority of the occupation groups in which employment shrank over the same period were low-skilled occupations or those that have been affected by the impact of technological and economic change. The greatest proportional decrease in employment occurred among miscellaneous clerks such as teachers aides; personnel clerks; legal and related clerks; and postal clerks and officers. This group had declined by 41% (70,800 fewer workers). The next four occupation groups in which the relative number of workers decreased the most were construction and mining labourers which decreased by 19% (26,100 fewer workers);

metal fitting and machine tradespersons decreased by 15% (19,400 fewer workers); machine operators decreased by 13% (20,700 workers) and farmers and farm managers by 11% (29,200 workers).

Unless workers receive training the inevitable result of the shift towards a more skilled labour force is that those without skills are left out or marginalised. Skilled people have lower unemployment rates than unskilled people (see *Australian Social Trends 1996*, From school to work, pp. 79-81; and *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Education and employment, pp. 84-87).

Top 10 fastest shrinking occupation groups(a), 1986-87 and 1995-96

Occupation group	Change between 1986-87 and 1995-96	
	Number of workers	Percentage change
	'000	%
Miscellaneous clerks	-70.8	-41.3
Construction and mining labourers	-26.1	-19.0
Metal fitting and machine tradespersons	-19.4	-15.1
Machine operators	-20.7	-13.0
Farmers and farm managers	-29.2	-11.1
Stenographers and typists	-22.9	-8.8
Stationary plant operators	-5.1	-8.0
Engineering and building associates and technicians	-6.3	-7.7
Printing tradespersons	-1.8	-4.4
Other metal tradespersons	-4.4	-4.0

(a) Minor occupation groups of the Australian Standard Classification of Occupations. Groups with fewer than 10,000 people in 1995-96 were excluded.

Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

Occupational distribution of unemployed people's last full-time job(a), 1995-96

Occupation group	Unemployed people
	%
Managers and administrators	4.5
Professionals	5.6
Para-professionals	3.1
Tradespersons	17.6
Clerks	12.2
Salespersons and personal service workers	16.4
Plant and machine operators, and drivers	9.8
Labourers and related workers	30.8
Total	100.0

(a) For unemployed people who had worked for two weeks or more in full-time employment in the last 2 years.

Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

The demand for workers with particular skills is reflected in the relative distribution of previous occupations among unemployed people. In general, unemployed people with previous occupations that required high skills represented the minority of unemployed people while those with lower skill levels represented the majority of unemployed people.

The future?

Over recent years government education policy has been directed at encouraging students to complete their secondary education and to go on to tertiary level studies. The relatively high Year 12 apparent school retention rates in the 1990s compared with the 1980s, and the increasing number of students completing tertiary studies reflects the success of these policies (see Education — national summary table, p. 66). This will result in a more highly skilled labour force over the coming decade (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Education and employment, pp. 84-87).

Some organisations have examined aspects of the likely future labour force. The then Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET) published a report⁶ making projections of the future labour force and the former Economic Planning and Advisory Commission (EPAC) issued a report⁷ that comments on the major issues facing the labour market of the future. The DEET report concluded that continuing globalisation of the economy would be a major influence on the Australian labour force. Manufacturing would need to become increasingly competitive by improving productivity, but it would not provide major new opportunities for employment. Those employed in the manufacturing industries would need to become more skilled or update their skills to cope with new technologies. The report suggested that the service sector would continue its dominant role in providing new jobs.

Endnotes

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- 2 Dyster, B. and Meredith, D. 1990, *Australia in the International Economy in the Twentieth Century*, Cambridge University Press, Melbourne.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1988, 'Development of manufacturing industries in Australia', *Year Book*, No. 71, Cat. no. 1301.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 OECD July 1992, *Employment Outlook*, OECD, Paris.
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- 7 Economic Planning Advisory Commission 1996, *Future Labour Market Issues for Australia*, AGPS, Canberra.

Small business

PAID WORK

In 1994-95, 96% of non-agricultural private sector businesses in Australia had fewer than 20 employed people. These businesses contributed almost one third of non-farm industry gross production.

Small business is acknowledged as a vital and significant sector of the Australian economy¹, with the vast majority of private sector businesses in Australia being small businesses. In 1994-95, 96% of non-agricultural private sector businesses had fewer than 20 employees. These 781,000 small businesses employing some 2.5 million people (33% of the workforce) contributed one third of non-farm industry gross production.

A further 3% of the workforce (246,000 people) were employed in some 101,500 small farming, forestry and fishing businesses in 1994-95. These businesses, mostly farm businesses operated as family concerns, have been excluded from this review because the nature of their business operations is different from businesses in the non-agricultural sector, and data about the two sectors is collected differently.

Small business over the last decade

Between 1983-84 and 1994-95, total employment in the non-agricultural private sector increased by 1.3 million, with small businesses accounting for half of this growth.

Small business

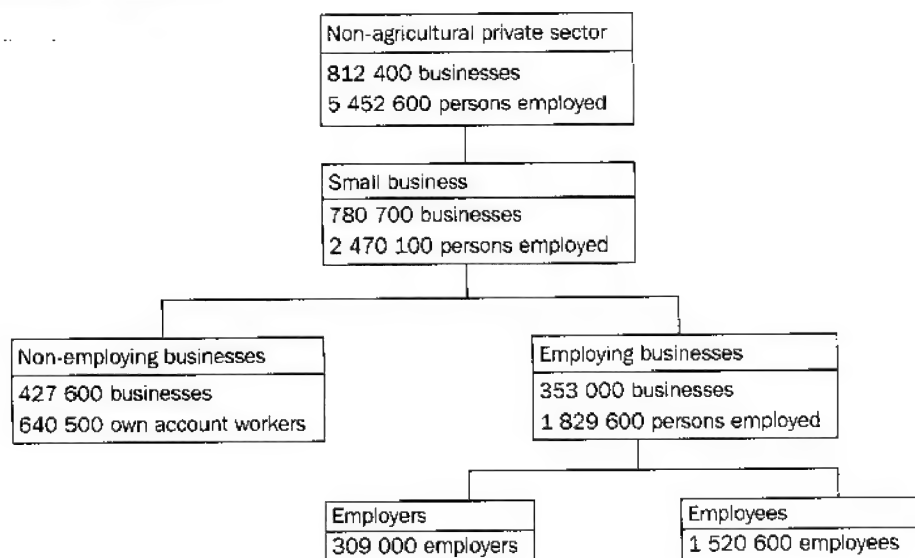
A business is traditionally regarded as small: if it is independently owned and operated; it is closely controlled by the owners who own most, if not all, of the operating capital; and if the principal decision-making functions rest with the owners.

Unfortunately, these characteristics are not readily identifiable for the business population as a whole, which renders such a definition impractical for statistical purposes. Hence business employment size is commonly accepted as a proxy for defining businesses by size in most statistical collections in Australia.

In this review, *small businesses* are defined as those non-agricultural private sector businesses with fewer than 20 employed people (including employers, own account workers and employees).

Over the period 1983-84 to 1992-93, small businesses increased their share of non-agricultural private sector employment from 44% to 47%. By 1994-95, however, this proportion had declined to 45%, indicating small businesses did not recover to the same extent as larger businesses from the last recession.

Structure of Australian small business, 1994-95



Source: *Small Business in Australia* (Cat. no. 1321.0).

1994-95						
Industry division	Businesses	Employment		Average business size(b)	Growth, 1983-84 to 1994-95	
		Total	Women		Businesses	Employment
	'000	'000	%	no.	'000	'000
Production/construction	215.0	610.4	22.1	2.8	71.1	164.6
Mining	2.5	9.5	14.7	3.8	1.0	3.7
Manufacturing	62.8	238.9	31.2	3.8	20.0	40.6
Construction	149.7	362.0	16.2	2.4	50.1	120.3
Service industries	557.6	1 845.5	47.8	3.3	159.4	457.8
Wholesale trade	50.0	216.0	33.7	4.3	8.1	46.2
Retail trade	134.7	506.9	45.7	3.8	-5.9	24.0
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	25.4	148.4	55.9	5.8	6.1	34.6
Transport and storage	44.1	123.0	23.7	2.8	5.1	25.8
Finance and insurance	20.7	50.7	47.3	2.4	8.4	15.6
Property and business services	131.4	377.9	46.2	2.9	68.1	152.9
Education	15.6	43.6	69.7	2.8	8.2	20.2
Health and community services	53.5	178.1	69.1	3.3	29.8	79.5
Cultural and recreational services	27.2	71.4	52.8	2.6	8.4	17.6
Personal and other services	55.0	129.5	57.8	2.4	23.1	41.4
Total(c)	780.7	2 470.1	41.3	3.2	236.1	631.4

(a) Includes own account workers, employers and employees.

(b) Average employment per business.

(c) Includes the electricity, gas and water supply and communication services industries.

Source: *Small Business in Australia* (Cat. no. 1321.0).

In 1994-95, three quarters of small business employment occurred in the service industries (that is, industries other than mining, manufacturing and construction). This is slightly higher than the corresponding figure for businesses with 20 or more employed people (71%). Industries with the largest small business employment were retail trade (507,000), property and business services (378,000), and construction (362,000). The construction industry had the largest number of small businesses. However, because the average size of small businesses in the construction industry was smaller than those in other industries, it was not the largest in terms of employment.

Over the period 1983-84 to 1994-95, the greatest growth in the number of small businesses occurred in the property and business services sector (an increase of 68,000), with small businesses in the construction industry also showing strong

growth (up by 50,000). Small businesses in these industries also outperformed other industries in terms of employment growth. While retail trade remains the largest employer among small businesses, growth over the period has been weak, with a small increase in employment and a decline in the number of businesses.

Although small in employment terms, the most rapidly expanding area of small business activity occurred among businesses providing education products and services; this sector experienced employment growth of 86% between 1983-84 and 1994-95. This was closely followed by businesses providing health and community services (81%). Other rapidly growing industries were property and business services (68%) and mining (64%).

Proprietors of employing businesses, June 1995

Size of business (employment)	Proportion of businesses with:		
	One proprietor only	No proprietors from the same family	Proprietors from the same family(a)
	%	%	%
Small			
1-4	47.0	6.0	47.0
5-19	23.6	16.9	59.5
Large			
20-199	28.2	27.6	44.3
200+	43.8	35.1	21.1

(a) Includes businesses with some proprietors from another family.

Source: Industry Commission and Department of Industry, Science and Tourism (1997) *A Portrait of Australian Business: Results of the 1995 Business Longitudinal Survey*.

Families in small business

Very small businesses, that is, those involving fewer than five people, accounted for 85% of the total number of small businesses in 1994-95. Of this group, there were 428,000 non-employing businesses, run by 640,000 operators, and 239,000 employing businesses.

Many non-employing businesses, if not operated by a sole proprietor, are run as family concerns. Many employing businesses are also managed by family concerns but the involvement of family members as joint proprietors tends to decline as the size of the

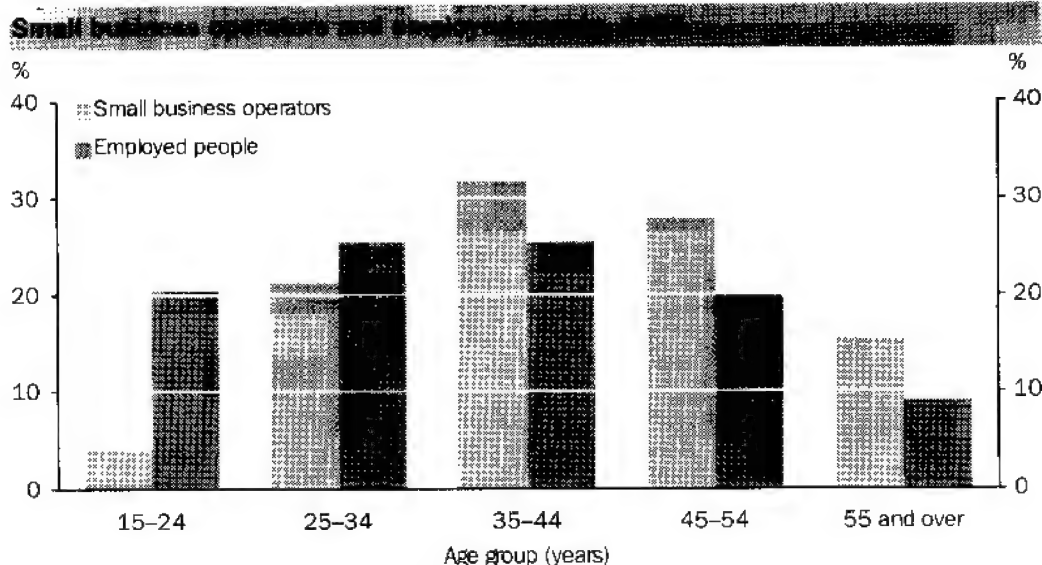
business increases. Only 6% of employing businesses with fewer than five people employed did not involve proprietors from the same family but among small businesses with between 5-19 workers, this proportion increased to 17%.

Women in small business

In 1994-95, one million women worked in small businesses representing 41% of all people occupied in small business. More than half of the women were employed in three industries: retail trade, property and business services, and health and community services. Women predominated in several service industries, particularly those undergoing rapid expansion. They were heavily outnumbered by men, however, in the goods-producing sector.

Most women (70%), including those who worked as salaried directors of companies, worked in small businesses as employees. The remaining 30% (310,000 women) were involved in running small unincorporated businesses. In 1994-95, 206,000 women worked as own account workers in non-employing businesses and 104,000 were involved in running unincorporated businesses with employees. Many of these two groups of women were in partnerships where their contribution to running the business was not determined.

In 1994-95 women represented nearly 33% of people working in their own unincorporated business (up from 30% in 1983-84). The average annual growth rate of women working as small business owners over this



Source: Characteristics of Small Business Survey (unpublished data) and *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

period was 3.3%. This compares to an average annual growth rate of men working as small business owners of 2.1%.

Small business operators

The Characteristics of Small Business Survey, conducted in February 1995, provided details of own account workers, employers, and working directors of incorporated companies. These people, including those who worked in partnerships, were collectively classified as small business operators. By virtue of their status as owners and directors many of these people would be involved in key business decision making processes. Some, however, who were members of a partnership would have spent most of their time doing other work for the business.

When compared to the workforce as a whole, a far lower proportion of small business operators were aged under 25 (4% compared to 20%) and the proportion in the 25-35 year age group was also lower. Taken together, 75% of small business operators were aged 35 years and over compared to 54% of all employed people. This may reflect the need to build both capital and expertise before operating one's own business.

The occupational profile of female operators differed from that of men. Female operators were more likely to work as clerks and sales and personal service workers and less likely to work as managers and administrators or professionals. Part of this difference may be associated with the fact that many women operators work as minor partners (often with husbands) in the business. It appears from the differences in occupations that they may often work in complementary roles in running the business.

Most (71%) small business operators worked at their business on a full-time basis, but the pattern was quite different for male and female operators. 86% of male operators worked full time compared to 44% of female operators. The proportions working full time were also lower than for the workforce as a whole, where 76% of employed persons (90% of males and 58% of females) work full time.

For women especially, operating their own business may offer greater flexibility to combine work with other responsibilities. In 1995, there were an estimated 301,000 home-based small business operators, that is where the operator usually worked more hours at home than away from home. While 33% of female small business operators were

Occupation	Men	Women	Total
	%	%	%
Managers and administrators	20.6	13.6	18.2
Professionals	16.7	11.2	14.8
Para-professionals	2.8	1.5	2.3
Tradespersons	31.7	8.1	23.7
Clerks	1.3	37.8	13.6
Sales and personal service workers	9.7	19.5	13.0
Plant and machine operators and drivers	9.2	2.1	6.8
Labourers and related workers	8.0	6.1	7.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Characteristics of Small Business Survey (unpublished data).

home based, only 19% of male small business operators were home-based.

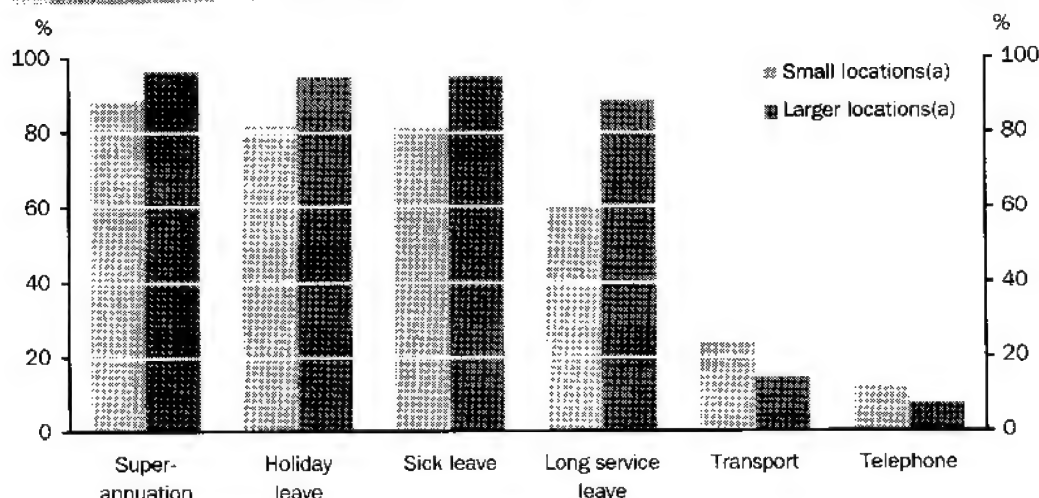
Many small business operators work long hours. Of those small business operators who worked full time, 40% worked 51 hours per week or more, compared to about a quarter of the full-time workforce. Nearly 8% worked 75 hours or more.

Pay and benefits for small business employees

In 1995, 62% of persons occupied in small business were employees. Employees in small businesses received lower earnings than their counterparts in larger businesses. The median weekly total earnings of full-time private sector employees (excluding managerial staff) in May 1994 was \$539, compared to \$480 for small business employees. While employees in small businesses worked on average 2% less hours than employees overall, they received 13% less pay. In terms of hourly earnings, employees in small businesses earned, on average, 12% less than the average amount earned by employees across all businesses.

In addition to wages and salaries, employees commonly receive various benefits in return for their labour. The Employment Benefits Survey, last conducted in August 1994, provides details of employees who worked in small and large workplaces. Not all employees in small locations (fewer than 20 employees) worked for small businesses. Some small locations are part of larger businesses. Given

Employment benefits of full-time employees, August 1994



(a) Small locations employ less than 20 employees, larger locations employ 20 or more staff.

Source: *Employment Benefits, Australia* (Cat. no. 6334.0.40.001)

that employment benefits are more likely to be determined by the size of the business than the size of the location, differences in conditions of service between employees of small business and those of larger businesses could well be more marked than the following statistics indicate.

Full-time employees at locations with less than 20 employees were less likely to have superannuation cover than their counterparts in larger locations (88% compared to 96%). The difference was greater for small businesses with less than 10 employees. Thus, among locations with 10–19 employees, 92% of full-time employees had superannuation cover while among those at locations with fewer than 10 employees the proportion was 87%.

Trade union members in businesses, June 1995

Size of business (employment)	None	Less than half of employees	Half or more of employees
	%	%	%
Small			
1–4	92.4	4.2	3.4
5–19	87.3	7.9	4.9
Large			
20–199	60.6	27.0	12.4
200+	21.2	40.9	38.1

Source: Industry Commission and Department of Industry, Science and Tourism (1997) *A Portrait of Australian Business: Results of the 1995 Business Longitudinal Survey*.

Full-time employees at small locations were also less likely to receive holiday leave, sick leave or long service leave. For instance, only 77% of those employed in locations with fewer than 10 employees received holiday leave compared to 95% of those in locations with 20 or more employees. Although enjoyed by only a minority of full-time employees, those at small locations were more likely to receive assistance with the cost of day-to-day travelling and telephone expenses.

Trade union membership

Differences in rates of pay and other work conditions between employees in small and large businesses may reflect differences in the skills of employees and the stability and profitability of the businesses. However, they may also reflect differences in the influence of trade unions. In 1995, the representation of trade union members in small businesses was substantially less than in larger businesses. Only 9% of businesses with fewer than 20 employees had a union member among their employees, compared to 42% of businesses with 20 or more employees.

Endnotes

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Employment of people with a handicap

PAID WORK

In 1993, the labour force participation rate for people aged 15-64 with a profound or severe handicap was 33% compared to 77% for those without a handicap.

An important means of both contributing to society and maintaining financial independence is through participation in paid employment.

The extent to which individuals are able to participate in work can be substantially affected by physical, psychological or intellectual impairments. Some young people with severe disabilities may never be able to work. However, as the likelihood of having a disability (and of more severe disabling conditions) tends to increase with age, it is more common for disabilities to impact on people later in their working life.

Responses to the effects of disabling conditions on a person's ability to work are many and varied. Some people are able to adjust their work arrangements, for example by reducing their hours of work. However, in recognition of the difficulties that many people face in getting jobs, government and community groups have developed a range of services to assist people with a disability in finding and maintaining employment.

These include promoting the concept of equal employment opportunity, supported by anti-discrimination laws such as the *Disability Discrimination Act 1992*, and government-funded incentive (or wage subsidy) schemes to encourage employers to engage people with a disability.

Disability and handicap

A *disability* is defined by the ABS as the presence of one or more of a number of listed limitations, restrictions or impairments which have lasted, or were likely to last, for six months or more.

A *handicap* is a limitation or restriction in performing certain tasks associated with daily living in the areas of self care, mobility, verbal communication, schooling or employment.

Severity of handicap is classified according to the level of difficulty people have, and the level of assistance they require in performing a range of tasks in the areas of self care, mobility and verbal communication. Handicap is classified into four levels of severity: profound (personal help or supervision always required); severe (personal help or supervision sometimes required); moderate (no help required, but some difficulty experienced); or mild (no difficulty experienced, but the use of an aid is required).

Working-age people

Working-age people are those aged 15-64 and living in households.

In recognising that many people cannot obtain paid employment due to their disability, the government also provides income support, the Disability Support Pension, as well as a range of benefits to those who meet the disability and income criteria.

Working-age people with disabilities and handicaps

The 1993 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers found that, after excluding people who lived in institutions, 15% (1.7 million) of working-age people (i.e. aged 15-64) had a disability. This includes people with relatively minor impairments which are unlikely to affect their employment opportunities in any significant way.

Most people with a disability also had a handicap (1.3 million or 11% of working-age people). The proportion of working-age people with a handicap increased with age, from 5% among those aged 15-24 to 26% among those aged 55-64.

Of working-age people, 2% (288,000) had a severe or profound handicap, representing

Working-age people with disabilities and handicaps

Disability and handicap status	Working-age people	
	'000	%
No disability	9 986.5	85.2
Disability	1 739.4	14.8
Handicap	1 274.7	10.9
Mild	515.9	4.4
Moderate	234.2	2.0
Severe	187.7	1.6
Profound	100.2	0.9
Not determined(a)	236.7	2.0
Total	11 726.0	100.0

(a) Severity of handicap was not determined for people who had an employment or schooling handicap only.

Source: Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings (Cat. no. 4430.0 and unpublished data).

about one quarter (23%) of those with a handicap. The proportion of working-age people with a severe or profound handicap also increased with age, from 1% of those aged 15–24, to 5% of those aged 55–64.

People permanently unable to work

In 1993, 3% of working-age people (391,000) were permanently unable to work, representing about one third (31%) of those with a handicap. Half of these (194,000) were aged 55–64.

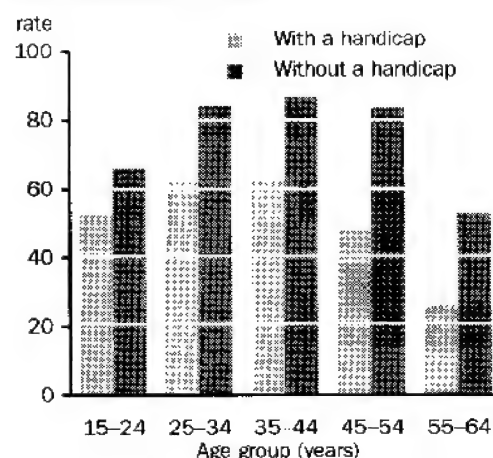
People's ability to work is affected by the nature of their condition. Among people with a handicap, 62% of those whose main disabling condition was mental psychosis were permanently unable to work, compared to 30% of those whose main condition was of a physical nature.

A higher proportion of younger than older people with a handicap had a main disabling condition which was related to a mental, rather than a physical disorder, and this was also the case for people who were permanently unable to work. Among those who were permanently unable to work, 53% of those aged 15–24 had a main disabling condition that was a mental disorder, compared to 6% of those aged 55–64. In contrast, older people were more likely to be affected by various physical impairments, particularly arthritis and other musculoskeletal conditions.

Demand for employment

The labour force participation rates of different population groups provide an indicator of their demand for work. In 1993, people with a handicap had a labour force participation rate (47%) well below that of people without a handicap (77%). This

Labour force participation rates of working-age people, 1993



Source: Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings (Cat. no. 4430.0 and unpublished data).

pattern was evident for all age groups, and was particularly marked among those aged 55–64. Only 26% of people with a handicap in this age group were in the labour force.

As might be expected, labour force participation rates declined with increasing severity of handicap. Of people with a mild handicap, 51% were in the labour force. This compares to 20% of those with a profound handicap.

Because disability (and severity of handicap) is related to age, some of the observed difference in labour force participation rates can be explained by the different age structures of the various groups. When adjusted for age, the differences in demand for employment, though less pronounced, remained significant. The age-standardised labour force participation rate for people without a handicap was 76%, compared to

Working-age people, 1993

Working-age people	Age group (years)					Total
	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	
	%	%	%	%	%	%
People with a handicap	5.1	6.3	9.6	15.5	26.3	10.9
Severe/profound handicap	1.3	1.7	2.4	3.5	4.7	2.5
Permanently unable to work	0.5	1.0	1.9	5.2	13.3	3.3
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total people with a handicap	141.3	178.9	254.8	315.9	384.0	1 274.7
Total working-age people	2 748.6	2 821.8	2 659.1	2 034.6	1 461.8	11 726.0

Source: Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings (Cat. no. 4430.0 and unpublished data).

Measuring demand for employment

The labour force participation rate for any group is the number of people in the labour force (i.e. employed and unemployed) expressed as a percentage of the population in that group. This definition is not a complete measure of demand for employment because it excludes people who would like to work, but have been discouraged by poor employment prospects from seeking work.

In the 1993 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, the labour force was defined as those people who were working or seeking work. This differs from the official measure collected in the Labour Force Survey because it does not check whether people looking for work have taken active steps to find work, and are available to start a job in the reference week.

The labour force participation rate can be considered a measure of demand for work by those supplying labour to the market. Correspondingly the unemployment rate is a measure of unmet demand for employment.

59% for those with a mild, and 23% for those with a profound handicap.

Labour force participation rates were also affected by the nature of the handicap. People whose main disabling condition was physical had a higher labour force participation rate (48%) than those with a mental condition (37%). The labour force participation rate was lowest among those whose main condition was mental psychosis (19%), but relatively

high among people with sight (62%) and hearing (72%) loss.

Working-age women were, in general, less likely than men to participate in the workforce, and this was also the case for women with a handicap.

Unmet demand for employment

As well as being less likely to participate in the labour force, people with a handicap who do participate are less likely than those without disabilities or handicaps to have their demand for work met. The 1993 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers found that 13% of people aged 15-64 were unemployed. However, the unemployment rate among people with a handicap was much higher at 21%.

People whose main disabling condition was a mental condition had a higher unemployment rate (28%) than those whose main condition was physical (20%). The unemployment rate was highest for people whose main disabling condition was a respiratory disease (32%), and comparatively low for people with sight and hearing loss (17%), arthritis (16%) and other musculoskeletal disorders (18%).

A factor contributing to high levels of unemployment among people with a handicap is the difficulty in finding jobs suitable to their requirements. 85% of unemployed working-age people with a handicap said they had employment limitations as a result of their handicap. 81%

Disability status	Labour force participation rate				Unemployment rate
	Men	Women	People		
			Actual	Standardised(a)	People
	%	%	%	%	%
No disability	88.2	65.6	76.9	76.3	12.0
Disability	62.6	46.1	54.9	60.0	17.8
Disability without handicap	87.5	65.1	77.9	78.7	12.6
Disability with handicap	52.6	39.9	46.5	52.7	21.0
Mild	57.5	44.6	51.3	58.9	18.5
Moderate	47.9	37.5	42.9	52.0	18.0
Severe	39.8	39.9	39.9	41.5	22.2
Profound	26.1	13.8*	19.9	23.3	20.9*
Not determined(b)	64.7	44.2	56.2	62.0	27.6
Total	84.1	62.9	73.6	73.6	12.7

(a) Standardised to the 1993 population aged 15-64.

(b) Severity of handicap was not determined for the 237,000 people who had an employment or schooling handicap only.

Source: *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings* (Cat. no. 4430.0 and unpublished data).

Working-age people with a handicap, 1993

Main disabling condition	Proportion with condition	Labour force participation rate	Unemployment rate
	%	%	%
Mental disorders	12.5	37.5	27.5
Physical conditions	87.5	47.8	20.3
Eye disorders	2.5	61.5	16.7*
Ear disorders	6.4	71.9	16.5
Nervous system diseases	6.7	39.1	24.7
Circulatory diseases	6.9	30.5	18.5*
Respiratory diseases	7.8	49.3	31.7
Arthritis	15.3	44.3	15.7
Other musculoskeletal disorders	18.5	49.2	18.4
Head injury/stroke/other brain damage	2.4	48.1	23.8*
Other	20.9	48.2	21.7
Total	100.0	46.5	21.0

Source: Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers (unpublished data).

said they were restricted in the type of job they could do, 21% said they would often need time off work, and 30% said they were restricted in the number of hours they could work.

Working arrangements of employed people

In 1993, 37% (468,000) of all working-age people with a handicap were employed, compared to 68% of those without a handicap. Among older people aged 55–64 the effect of handicap on employment was even more pronounced. 22% of people in this age group with a handicap were employed, compared to 49% of those without a handicap.

As with unemployed people, many employees with a handicap (63%) said that they had employment limitations as a result of their handicap. When asked about the nature of the limitation, 63% of employees with a handicap said that they were restricted in the type of job they could do, and 33% said that they were limited in the number of hours they could work. 59% said their handicap made it difficult for them to change jobs, and 15% said their employer had to make special arrangements for their employment.

The effects of employment limitations, which are more significant among people with a severe or profound handicap, are reflected to some extent in the working arrangements and occupations they have adopted.

Employment assistance

Under the Commonwealth/State Disability Agreement, the Commonwealth Government is responsible for the provision of employment services, while the States and Territories have responsibility for accommodation and other support. Responsibility for advocacy, information and research, and funding of services is shared between the two levels of government.

The Commonwealth Government, through the Disability Services Program administered by the Department of Health and Family Services, funds non-government organisations to assist people with a disability to find and stay in employment. A census of employment services in 1993 showed that on the census day, approximately 26,000 people were being supported by services funded under the Disability Services Program¹.

The Department of Employment, Education and Youth Affairs offers a range of labour market programs targeted toward people with a disability.

The *Disability Wage Supplement* assists people with severe disabilities who are unable to work at full wages to receive a pro rata wage based on their level of disability.

As well as services and assistance targeted specifically at people with a disability, they are also able to access mainstream services, such as those provided by the Department of Employment, Education and Youth Affairs.

Working arrangements of employed working-age people, 1993

Working arrangements and limitations	With a handicap			Main disabling condition		Total with a handicap	Total without a handicap
	Severity of handicap			Mental	Physical		
	Profound/ severe	Moderate	Mild				
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
With employment limitations(a)	78.8	57.1	46.2	75.9	61.4	62.7	..
Worked less than 35 hours per week	42.0	30.2	25.3	37.7	28.3	29.2	23.4
Worked in labourer and related occupations	21.9	13.4	15.7	26.4	17.0	17.9	13.4
Self employed	14.0	22.6	16.8	10.1*	17.6	16.9	13.6
Worked at home	9.4*	12.1	11.0	9.3*	11.3	11.1	6.1
Worked in the public sector	27.6	31.0	31.4	22.3	30.3	29.5	23.2
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total employed people	74.0	82.5	215.6	43.4	425.1	468.5	7 071.5

(a) Refers to employees only.

Source: Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers (unpublished data).

Among employed people, those with a handicap were more likely to work part time (29%) than those without a handicap (23%). This was particularly evident among employed people with a profound or severe handicap, 42% of whom worked on a part-time basis. People with a handicap were also more likely to be self employed, and to work from home.

People with a handicap work in a range of occupations, many of which are highly skilled and highly paid. However, a greater proportion of people with than without a handicap were employed in less-skilled occupations. In 1993, 18% of employed people with a handicap worked in labouring or related occupations compared to 13% of those without a handicap. Some of these people may have acquired their handicap through their work. However this in itself is unlikely to account for the high proportion of employed people with profound and severe

handicaps who worked in these manual occupations (22%).

Those with a handicap were also slightly more likely than those without a handicap to work in the public sector (30% compared to 23%), possibly reflecting the leading role of government in promoting equal employment opportunity programs.

Of employed people with a handicap, those whose main disabling condition was a mental condition were more likely to report employment limitations (76%), than those whose main condition was physical (61%). They were also more likely to work part time, and in labouring or related occupations.

Endnotes

- 1 Commonwealth Department of Human Services and Health 1994, *Service Consumer Profile Report 1993*, AGPS, Canberra.

Voluntary work

UNPAID WORK

In 1994-95, 19% of Australians undertook some voluntary work. Women were more likely than men to volunteer.

Volunteers make a valuable contribution to the Australian community. The tasks they perform and the organisations to which they give their time are many and varied. From sports grounds to hospitals, volunteers enrich the social and welfare networks of Australia.

During 1994-95, an estimated 2.6 million people, 19% of people aged 15 years or over, undertook voluntary work through a group or organisation. These volunteers contributed about 430 million hours of their time to voluntary tasks. This was equivalent to about 3% of the time employed people spent in paid work over the same period (14.6 billion hours).

Who volunteers?

People of all ages worked as volunteers. Those aged 35-44 represented 28% of all volunteers. Overall, 57% of volunteers were women. In each age group women out-numbered men by a similar proportion.

In 1994-95, women aged 35-44 had the highest volunteer rate (31% of all women in that age group had performed voluntary work) followed by women aged 45-54 (24%). The highest volunteer rate for men also occurred in these two age groups (24% and 21% respectively). The high volunteer rate in the 35-44 age group corresponds to the ages when many adults have school-age children.

Voluntary work

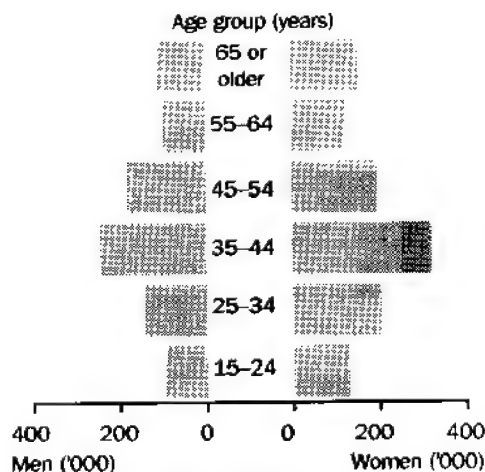
This review uses data from the Survey of Voluntary Work conducted in June 1995. Information was collected from people aged 15 and over about voluntary work performed during the previous year.

A *volunteer* is someone who willingly gave unpaid help in the form of time, service or skills, through a formally structured organisation or group during the year prior to the survey. This excludes other forms of personal or informal voluntary work, such as minding the children next-door, neighbourhood help etc.

The *volunteer rate* for any population group is the number of volunteers expressed as a percentage of the population aged 15 years and over in the group.

Married people (including de facto partners) had higher volunteer rates if they had dependent children. Partners with dependants had volunteer rates of 23% for men and 30% for women. Partners without dependants had volunteer rates of 17% for men and 19% for women. These differences reflect the involvement of parents, particularly mothers, in their children's activities.

Age and sex profile of volunteers, 1994-95



Source: Voluntary Work, Australia (Cat. no. 4441.0).

Characteristics	Men %	Women %	Total %
Age group (years)			
15-24	9.4	13.0	11.2
25-34	13.6	19.0	16.3
35-44	23.8	30.9	27.4
45-54	21.0	24.0	22.5
55-64	17.1	22.1	19.6
65 or older	15.7	18.9	17.4
Family status			
Husband/wife/partner	20.1	24.4	22.3
With dependents	23.1	29.9	26.4
Without dependents	17.3	19.2	18.2
Total	16.7	21.3	19.0

Source: Voluntary Work, Australia (Cat. no. 4441.0).

Volunteer rates, 1982 and 1994-95

State	Men	Women
	%	%
Qld		
1982	25.8	31.4
1994-95	18.3	23.5
Vic.		
1982	26.9	29.5
1994-95	17.6	22.2
Aust. 1994-95	16.7	21.3

Source: *Provision of Welfare Service by Volunteers*, Queensland (Cat. no. 4401.3); *Provision of Welfare Service by Volunteers*, Victoria (Cat. no. 4401.2); *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

Differences over time

The 1995 survey of voluntary work was the first national survey of volunteers. Consequently, there are no earlier national figures on which to base comparison over time. However, comparable surveys have been held in some States. In 1982 surveys of volunteers were held in both Victoria and Queensland. The volunteer rates decreased markedly in both States between 1982 and 1994-95. In Queensland the rates for women decreased from 31% to 24% and those for men decreased from 26% to 18%. In Victoria similar declines were experienced. These declines may be related to the increased participation of women in paid employment, reducing the amount of time that both parents can devote to volunteer activities.

Regional differences

Overall, volunteer rates were higher outside of State capital cities than within them. In State capital cities, 14% of men and 18% of women volunteered. Outside of the cities, 21% of men and 27% of women volunteered.

Volunteer rates also varied considerably between State capital cities and the remaining areas of their respective States. Among State capital cities, Sydney had the lowest volunteer rate of 12%. This was followed by Melbourne and Perth at 16% and 17% respectively.

The volunteer rates among people in each State who did not live in the capital cities also varied but were generally higher than those of people who lived in capital cities. For people living outside capital cities the highest volunteer rates were among those living in South Australia (33%) and Western Australia

Volunteer rates, 1994-95

State/Territory	Capital city	Balance of State	Total
	%	%	%
NSW	12.2	20.9	15.4
Vic.	16.4	29.1	20.0
Qld	20.6	21.3	20.9
SA	19.0	32.7	22.5
WA	16.7	28.8	19.9
Tas.	20.4	23.4	22.2
NT	n.a.	n.a.	23.4
ACT	n.a.	n.a.	26.1
Aust.(a)	16.2	24.0	19.0

(a) Capital city total includes the Australian Capital Territory and balance of State total includes the Northern Territory.

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

(29%) while the lowest rates were in New South Wales and Queensland (both 21%).

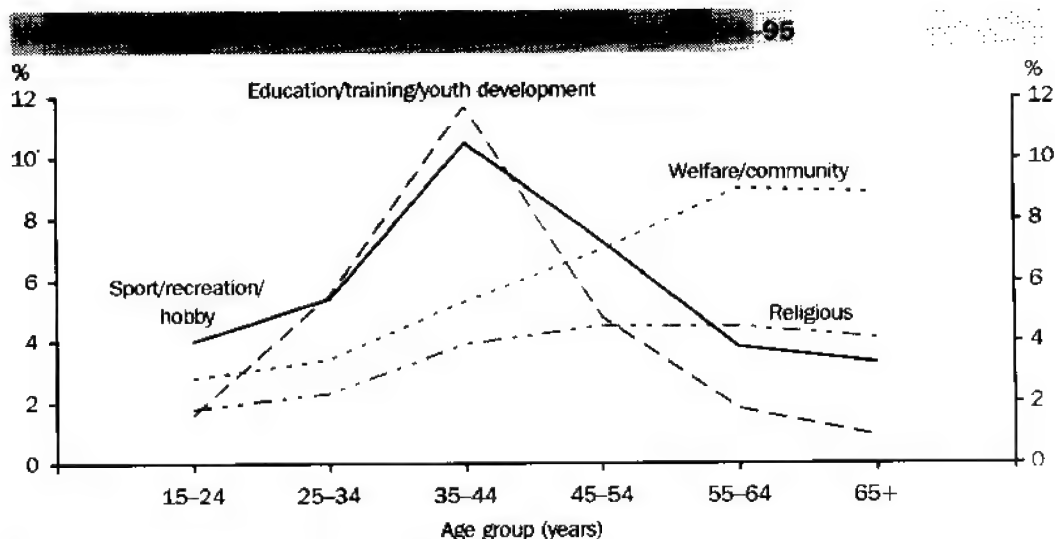
The higher volunteer rates outside of capital cities may indicate that there is a difference in social and community life between country and city. There is some evidence that clubs and organisations play a more important role in rural life. A study of a small town in Victoria illustrates the importance of clubs and organisations to social and community life in a rural area¹.

The field of organisations volunteers worked in(a), 1994-95

Field of voluntary work	Men	Women
	%	%
Welfare/community	27.0	31.8
Education/training/youth development	16.7	31.8
Sport/recreation/hobby	41.7	23.5
Religious	16.2	18.8
Health	4.4	8.8
Arts/culture	3.6	4.5
Environmental/animal welfare	4.4	3.2
Emergency services	8.5	2.1
Business/professional/union	4.9	2.0
Law/justice/political	2.2	1.3
Foreign/international	0.6	0.9

(a) Volunteers can work for more than one organisation.

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).



Source: Voluntary Work, Australia (Cat. no. 4441.0).

Field of voluntary organisation

The fields in which volunteers worked were quite varied. However, the majority of volunteers were involved in sporting, recreational, educational, welfare or community fields. Male volunteers were most likely to carry out voluntary work in sporting and recreational fields (42%), and welfare and community fields (27%). Female volunteers were most likely to carry out voluntary work in welfare and community fields (32%), and educational and training fields (32%).

The field in which volunteers worked was also related to the age of the volunteer. In general, the volunteer rates for educational, sporting or recreational fields were highest among people aged 35-44. The highest rates for

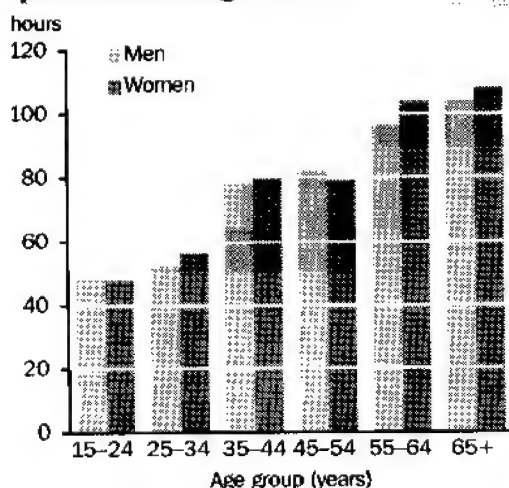
welfare, community and religious fields occurred among older people. The high rates for educational, sporting or recreational fields among middle-aged people no doubt reflects the involvement of parents in the activities in which their children are involved.

Hours worked as a volunteer

While people aged 35-44 had the highest participation in voluntary work, they did not work the most hours. In general, the number of hours worked as a volunteer increased with the age of the volunteer. This correlates with the decrease in family and paid work commitments which come with increasing age.

The median hours spent performing voluntary work during the previous year by

Median hours of voluntary work performed during 1994-95

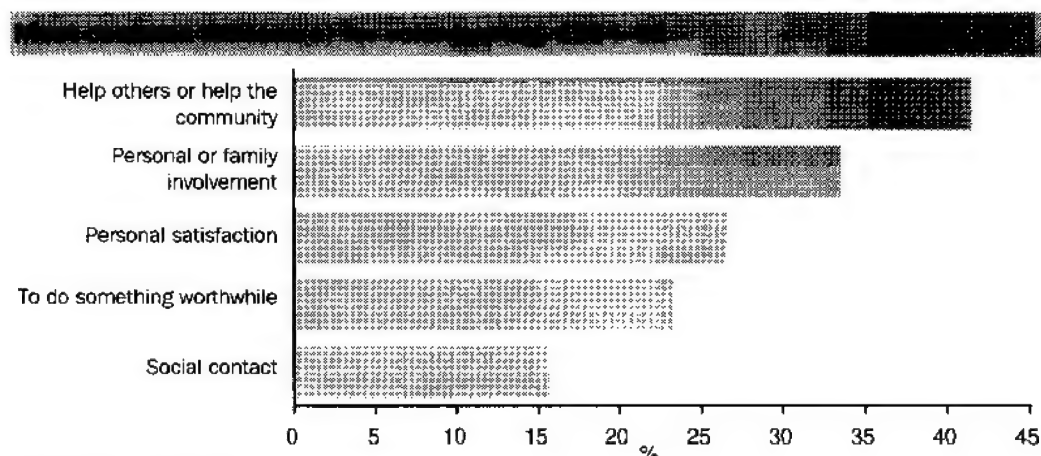


Source: Voluntary work (unpublished data).

Hours of voluntary work performed during 1994-95

Hours worked	Men	Women	Total
	%	%	%
Less than 20	19.8	17.4	18.5
20-39	14.7	14.4	14.6
40-79	17.1	19.4	18.4
80-139	16.0	16.8	16.5
140-299	17.6	17.8	17.8
300 or more	14.7	14.1	14.4
Total volunteers	100.0	100.0	100.0
	hours	hours	hours
Median hours	74	75	75

Source: Voluntary Work, Australia (Cat. no. 4441.0).



(a) Volunteers may have given more than one reason.

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

people who were employed full time was lower (72 hours for men and 64 hours for women) than the median for volunteers who were not in the labour force (96 hours for men and 88 hours for women).

Overall, there was considerable variation in the hours volunteers worked. 14% of volunteers performed 300 or more hours of voluntary work in the previous year, including a small proportion, 2%, who performed in excess of 1,000 hours. 19% of volunteers worked less than 20 hours of voluntary work during the previous year.

Reasons for becoming a volunteer

Most people carry out volunteer work for more than one reason. The reason most commonly given was to help other people or

the community (stated by 42% of volunteers). 23% of volunteers stated they volunteered to do something worthwhile. Some of the reasons given indicated that volunteers anticipated personal gains such as a sense of satisfaction or social contact (27% and 16% of volunteers respectively). Another commonly given reason for volunteering was personal or family involvement (34% of volunteers). That is, they or a family member were previously involved with the organisation for which they then performed voluntary work.

Endnotes

- 1 Dempsey, K. 1992, *A Man's Town: Inequality between Women and Men in Rural Australia*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne.

Income and expenditure

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INCOME DISTRIBUTION

Trends in household disposable income	117
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Between 1984 and 1994 the share of total household disposable income going to low-income households decreased slightly, while high-income households increased their share.

Youth income	121
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Between 1985 and 1995 the proportion of young people with full-time jobs has fallen. The earnings of young employees compared to older workers have also declined.

Charity at home and overseas aid	125
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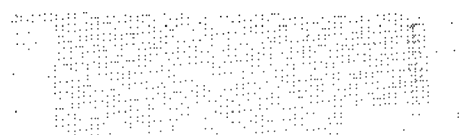
In 1994-95, Australian taxpayers declared donations of \$4.6 billion to a range of organisations with tax deductibility status.
In 1996-97, the Australian government allocated \$1.5 billion to overseas development assistance.

EXPENDITURE

Household expenditure on recreation	130
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In real terms, Australian households spent 17% more on recreation in 1993-94 than in 1984, even though the size of the total household budget stayed much the same.

Income — national summary



INCOME DISTRIBUTION	<i>Units</i>	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
GDP per capita (1989–90 prices)	\$'000	19.4	19.9	20.1	20.8	21.4	21.7	21.3	21.2	21.6	22.3	23.1
Real household disposable income per capita	\$'000	12.7	12.9	12.7	12.9	13.3	13.7	13.5	13.6	13.8	14.0	14.3
Share of gross income going to top quintile (of all income units)	%	n.a.	45.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	46.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	47.9
Share of gross income going to bottom quintile (of all income units)	%	n.a.	4.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	4.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.6
Gini coefficient (of all income units)	no.	n.a.	0.41	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.42	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.44
Median gross weekly income of couple with dependants income units	\$	n.a.	550	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	755	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	842
Median gross weekly income of one parent income units	\$	n.a.	220	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	279	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	349

SOURCES OF INCOME	<i>Units</i>	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Main income source from government payments (of all income units)	%	n.a.	27.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	26.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	28.8
Main income source from government payments (of couples with dependants income units)	%	n.a.	8.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	8.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	11.4
Main income source from government payments (of one parent income units)	%	n.a.	64.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	61.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	59.4
Mean total weekly earnings of all employees	\$	346	368	384	411	441	475	494	510	526	533	551
Mean total weekly earnings of full-time adult employees	\$	410	436	462	497	538	571	597	616	641	658	690
Mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time non-managerial adult employees	\$	361	384	406	433	466	495	521	541	558	578	608
Female/male ratio of mean total full-time adult weekly earnings	no.	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.80	0.82	0.80	0.82	0.81

INCOME SUPPORT	<i>Units</i>	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Aged on age pension	%	64.6	62.7	61.5	60.2	59.2	59.3	61.0	62.8	64.3	63.0	62.7
Age pensioners	'000	1 325	1 322	1 329	1 334	1 340	1 376	1 446	1 516	1 582	1 579	1 603
Unemployment allowees	'000	568.7	553.7	478.0	389.8	419.8	676.7	851.8	913.8	878.3	822.6	846.6
Disability support pensioners	'000	273.8	289.1	296.9	307.8	306.7	334.2	378.6	406.6	436.2	464.4	499.2
Sole parent pensioners	'000	250.9	248.9	238.7	239.5	248.9	265.7	278.2	298.4	313.4	324.9	342.3
GDP spent on income support	%	6.3	6.1	5.8	5.4	5.4	6.3	7.2	7.5	7.7	7.4	7.4

EXPENDITURE	<i>Units</i>	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Consumer price index (Base year 1989–90 = 100.0)	no.	73.5	80.4	86.3	92.6	100.0	105.3	107.3	108.4	110.4	113.9	118.7

Reference periods:

Data for GDP, real household disposable income, GDP spent on income support, and consumer price index are for the financial year ending 30 June.

Income — State summary

INCOME DISTRIBUTION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Gross state product per capita (market price)	\$'000	1994-95	25.9	26.6	22.9	22.6	27.5	20.6	28.3	32.0	25.4
Household disposable income per capita	\$'000	1994-95	16.8	16.5	14.7	15.1	15.8	13.8	15.9	21.1	16.1
Share of equivalent income going to top quintile (of all income units)	%	1994-95	38.1	38.6	36.9	37.2	37.4	35.8	n.a.	35.2	37.8
Share of equivalent income going to bottom quintile (of all income units)	%	1994-95	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.8	7.4	7.9	n.a.	7.3	7.2
Gini coefficient (of all income units)	no.	1994-95	0.45	0.44	0.44	0.43	0.42	0.41	n.a.	0.38	0.44
Median gross weekly income of couple with dependants income units	\$	1994-95	866	842	816	757	852	820	n.a.	1003	842
Median gross weekly income of one parent income units	\$	1994-95	326	361	349	334	387	261	n.a.	*458	349

SOURCES OF INCOME	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Main income source from government payments (of all income units)	%	1994-95	28.4	28.3	28.8	34.8	27.3	34.8	n.a.	17.5	28.8
Main income source from government payments (of couple with dependants income units)	%	1994-95	12.1	10.3	12.4	11.2	10.9	14.9	n.a.	**	11.4
Main income source from government payments (of one parent income units)	%	1994-95	56.1	58.8	61.4	59.8	66.7	73.7	n.a.	*46.5	59.4
Mean total weekly earnings of all employees	\$	1995	572	553	524	518	543	501	560	624	551
Mean total weekly earnings of full-time adult employees	\$	1995	712	689	654	648	703	638	680	770	690
Mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time non-managerial adult employees	\$	1995	621	603	590	590	616	572	616	655	608
Female/male ratio of mean total full-time adult weekly earnings	no.	1995	0.80	0.81	0.81	0.84	0.76	0.86	0.84	0.80	0.81

INCOME SUPPORT	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Aged on age pension	%	1995-96	60.6	62.7	60.4	66.3	59.7	62.1	61.7	45.4	62.7
Age pensioners(a)	'000	1995-96	546.5	410.1	267.5	157.0	129.3	43.5	4.7	12.0	1 602.8
Unemployment allowees	'000	1995-96	263.4	211.8	173.6	76.3	71.9	27.5	11.6	10.4	846.6
Disability support pensioners(a)	'000	1995-96	172.3	115.6	88.3	46.0	42.8	17.0	3.9	4.3	499.2
Sole parent pensioners(a)	'000	1995-96	114.8	75.1	69.3	29.0	34.0	10.4	4.7	4.8	342.3

(a) Components do not add to total because total for Australia includes pensions paid to people living overseas.

Income — definitions and references

- Adult employees** — employees aged 21 or over, or those who are paid at the full adult rate.
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).
- Age pensioners** — people receiving full or partial age pension excluding associated wife's or carer's pension. Men 65 years and over and women 60.5 years and over may be eligible to receive the age pension.
Reference: Department of Social Security, *Annual Report*.
- Aged** — men 65 and over and women 60 and over.
Reference: *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia* (Cat. no. 3201.0).
- Consumer price index** — a measure of change over time in the retail price of a constant basket of goods and services which is representative of consumption patterns of employee households in metropolitan areas.
Reference: *The Australian Consumer Price Index: Concepts, Sources and Methods* (Cat. no. 6461.0).
- Disability support pensioners**
Reference: Department of Social Security, *Annual Report*.
- Disposable income** — gross income less personal income tax (including the Medicare levy).
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).
- Employees** — all wage and salary earners who received pay for any part of the reference period.
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).
- Equivalent income** — disposable income adjusted, using simplified Henderson equivalence scales, to allow comparison between different types of income units. The scales reflect assumptions about how different characteristics e.g. size and composition, relate to the amount of income different types of income units need to achieve an equivalent standard of living.
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).
- Female/male ratio of mean total full-time adult earnings**
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).
- Full-time employees** — employees who usually work 35 hours or more a week, or the agreed hours of a full-time employee.
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).
- GDP (gross domestic product)** — an aggregate measure of the value of economic production in a year. This series uses GDP(A) or average GDP.
Reference: *Australian National Accounts: National Income, Expenditure and Product* (Cat. no. 5204.0).
- GDP spent on income support** — special appropriations under the Social Security Act for income support as a proportion of GDP.
Reference: Department of Social Security, *Annual Report*.
- Gini coefficient** — an index for measuring inequality of income distribution. The index, always between 0 and 1, is low for populations with relatively equal income distributions and high for populations with relatively unequal income distributions.
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).
- Gross income** — cash receipts, that are of a regular and recurring nature, before tax or any other deductions are made.
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).
- Gross State product** — a similar measure to GDP but based on State income estimates.
Reference: *Australian National Accounts: State Accounts* (Cat. no. 5220.0).
- Household disposable income** — household income (as measured in the Australian National Accounts) less income tax and other direct taxes, fees, fines etc charged by the government, consumer debt interest and transfers overseas.
Reference: *Australian Economic Indicators* (Cat. no. 1350.0).
- Income unit** — One person, or group of related persons within a household, whose command over income is assumed to be shared. Income sharing is considered to take place between married (registered or de facto) couples, and between parents and dependent children.
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).
- Main income source from government payments** — government pensions or allowances form the largest component of usual income.
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).
- Managerial employees** — adult managerial, executive and professional employees who are in charge of a significant number of employees or have significant responsibilities in the conduct or operations of the organisation and who may not receive payment for overtime.
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).
- Mean total weekly earnings**
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).
- Mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time non-managerial adults**
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).
- Median weekly income** — the level of weekly income at which half the income units have higher incomes and half have lower incomes.
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).
- Ordinary time** — employee's agreed hours of work including annual leave, paid sick leave and long service leave.
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).
- Real household disposable income** — household disposable income (as measured in the Australian National Accounts) adjusted for change in prices.
Reference: *Australian Economic Indicators* (Cat. no. 1350.0).
- Share of gross/equivalent income going to top/bottom quintile** — share of gross/equivalent income received by the 20% of income units with the highest/lowest incomes.
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).
- Sole parent pensioners** — recipients of the sole parent pension. In 1989, the supporting parent benefit and A class widow pensions were combined to form the sole parent pension. Figures prior to 1989 include these two pensions.
Reference: Department of Social Security, *Annual Report*.
- Unemployment allowees** — the number of recipients of unemployment benefit prior to 1991 and of Job Search allowance, Newstart allowance and Youth Training allowance since then.
Reference: Department of Social Security, *Annual Report*.

Trends in household disposable income

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

Between 1984 and 1994 the share of total household disposable income going to low-income households decreased slightly while high-income households increased their share.

Households may receive income from a range of sources e.g. wages and salaries, own business, government pensions and allowances. Such regular and recurring receipts provide the main means by which most households finance current consumption and make provision for the future through saving, investments, etc. Analysis of income distribution can indicate whether the gap between high and low income households is growing or shrinking, and which groups within the population are at most risk of economic or social disadvantage.

Increasing inequality in household incomes

Between 1984 and 1994, the gap between high and low income households widened. Household disposable (after tax) income increased by 52% in the lowest income quintile compared to 71% in the highest quintile.

Households in the lowest three quintiles received a slightly smaller share of total household disposable income in 1994 than in 1984. The fourth quintile remained about the same while households in the highest quintile increased their income share.

In 1994, the top 20% of households received 40% of total household disposable income (an average of \$1,205 per week). The bottom 20% of households received a 6% share or an average of \$175 per week.

Household income

Gross income is regular and recurring receipts from all sources before deductions for income tax, superannuation, etc. Comprises private income (e.g. from wages/salaries, business, investment) and government cash benefits (e.g. age pension, unemployment allowance, family allowance) of all household members.

Income quintiles are formed by ranking all households in ascending order by level of household income and then dividing into five groups each containing 20% of all households.

Disposable income is equal to gross income minus direct taxes (i.e. personal income tax and Medicare levy) for all household members.

Real disposable income is disposable income which has been adjusted for the effects of inflation to enable comparison of real values over time. In this review, 1984 disposable income has been inflated to 1993-94 values using the CPI-weighted average of eight capital cities, all groups index.

Reference periods in this review uses income data from two household expenditure surveys, one referring to the calendar year 1984 and the other to the financial year 1993-94. 1994 is used throughout to refer to the reference period 1993-94.

Factors contributing to greater inequality

Households are getting smaller, on average, due partly to the ageing of the population and the consequent increase in aged one-person households. Increases in one-person and

Income quintile	Average per week		Income share		Average persons per household		One person households	
	1984	1994	1984	1994	1984	1994	1984	1994
	\$	\$	%	%	no.	no.	%	%
Lowest	114.86	174.82	6.3	5.8	1.7	1.5	53.8	63.4
Second	218.61	340.07	12.1	11.4	2.7	2.4	16.9	17.5
Third	324.78	517.77	17.9	17.4	3.1	2.9	15.8	16.5
Fourth	449.19	745.77	24.8	25.0	3.2	3.1	7.0	8.5
Highest	703.45	1 205.46	38.8	40.4	3.6	3.2	2.1	2.9
Total	362.01	596.84	100.0	100.0	2.8	2.6	19.1	21.8

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: The Effects of Government Benefits and Taxes on Household Income (Cat. no. 6537.0); Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: Household Characteristics (Cat. no. 6531.0).

one-parent households following separation and divorce have also contributed to smaller average household size (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Changes in living arrangements, pp. 35–39).

Between 1984 and 1994 the size of households declined from an average of 2.8 persons per household to 2.6 persons per household. As a proportion of all households, one-person households increased from 19% to 22%, and aged one-person households increased from 8% to 9%. One-parent households (with dependent children only) increased from 4% to 5% of all households.

On average, households with only one adult and therefore only one income, have lower incomes than households with 2 or more adults. Among one-adult households, the aged and one-parent households generally have the lowest incomes. This increasing proportion of relatively low-income households has contributed to the increased inequality of household incomes and to the decline in average real (CPI adjusted) disposable incomes at the lower end of the distribution.

At the same time, the proportion of households with two incomes has increased. For example, among couple families with dependent children, the proportion with both partners employed increased from 42% in 1984 to 53% in 1994. Moreover, the combined hours that couples with dependent children work each week has also increased (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Families and work, pp. 30–33).

These trends have also contributed to the increased inequality of household incomes and to the rise in average real disposable income in the highest quintile.

Other changes during this period, such as increasing dispersion in full-time adult

earnings (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Trends in earnings distribution, pp. 137–138) and rising unemployment rates have also contributed to the increased inequality of household incomes.

Buying power of household incomes

Inequality and relative advantage or disadvantage are important measures associated with social justice issues and can form the basis for the development and review of redistributive policy (e.g. taxation and income support). An equally important consideration is whether household incomes have maintained their value over time, in terms of the goods and services which can be bought and the potential standard of living which can be supported.

In 1994, real disposable household incomes were lower than in 1984 for all but the highest income quintile. The apparent buying power of households in the lowest quintile was eroded by 9% (\$17 per week at 1994 values). The second and third quintiles were about \$25 worse off in real terms, representing decreases of 7% and 5% respectively from 1984 income levels. Only the highest quintile achieved an increase (2.5% or \$29 per week) in real disposable income between 1984 and 1994.

While real disposable income per household has declined in all but the top income quintile, this does not take into account the decline in average household size. When calculated in terms of income per person, real disposable income per household member increased by an average of 6% between 1984 and 1994. This is consistent with the steadily rising trend observed in household disposable income per capita as measured in national accounts (see Income — national summary table, p. 114).

Income quintile	Average per week		Change 1984 to 1994		
	1984	1994	Amount	Per household	Per capita
	\$	\$	\$	%	%
Lowest	192.13	174.82	-17.31	-9.0	-1.3
Second	365.67	340.07	-25.60	-7.0	4.7
Third	543.27	517.77	-25.50	-4.7	-0.1
Fourth	751.37	745.77	-5.60	-0.7	3.1
Highest	1 176.68	1 205.46	28.78	2.5	13.2
Total	605.54	596.84	-8.70	-1.4	6.4

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: The Effects of Government Benefits and Taxes on Household Income (Cat. no. 6537.0).

Measuring changes in living standards

In addition to income, a household may draw on other resources, such as accumulated savings/assets, loans, superannuation lump sums or gifts from relatives to finance their needs. Some households receive, directly from employers, goods or services such as the use of a car, free or subsidised housing, low interest loans, etc. Most households also benefit to a greater or lesser extent from free or subsidised goods and services provided by government in the form of education, health care and subsidised pharmaceuticals, housing, etc. These have a much greater impact on the total resources, or final income, of households with low cash incomes (see *Australian Social Trends 1996*, Household income redistribution, pp. 117–120).

While cash income is not a complete measure of the resources available to households, trends in real disposable income can still provide a useful proxy indicator of trends in living standards.

Household characteristics and living standards

In order to achieve an equivalent standard of living, different types of households in different circumstances require different levels of income. The financial needs of different household types vary according to a range of factors including household size and the age and lifecycle stage of household members. For example, a person living alone would generally need less income than a couple without children who would in turn need less than a couple with several dependent children to achieve an equivalent standard of living.

Direct comparisons of income levels over time are confounded to the extent that household size, composition and circumstances (e.g. housing costs associated with either renting buying or outright home ownership) change over time. These need to be taken into account when making inferences about apparent changes in living standards. Equivalence scales, which may be defined as the ratios of the incomes needed by different types of households to achieve the same standard of living, can be used to adjust household incomes to remove at least some of the confounding effects of changing household size, composition and living arrangements. Adjusting income in this way also enables comparison of living standards between different household types at a given point in time.

An alternative method of making meaningful comparisons over time is to compare each household type separately. This method can be very laborious and is generally used, as in this review, to focus on a few specific household types. However, while this method allows changes to be observed for specific household types it does not allow comparison of living standards between different household types.

Households with dependent children

To the extent that real disposable income provides an indication of potential living standards over time, the standard of living of households with dependent children appears to have improved between 1984 and 1994. Real disposable incomes, and hence the buying power, of these households have increased.

Selected household types	Average per week		Change 1984 to 1994		Households
	1984	1994			1994
	\$	\$	\$	%	'000
One parent with:					
One dependent child only	300.74	355.04	54.30	18.1	163.4
Two dependent children only	340.57	385.88	45.31	13.3	112.7
Two parents with:					
One dependent child only	630.30	706.29	75.99	12.1	451.4
Two dependent children only	665.53	714.86	49.33	7.4	706.5
Three dependent children only	700.89	714.43	13.54	1.9	214.5

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: The Effects of Government Benefits and Taxes on Household Income (Cat. no. 6537.0).

One-parent households, with dependent children only, have had the highest percentage gains in real disposable income; 18% or \$54 per week for those with one dependent child and 13% or \$45 per week for those with two dependent children. This is mainly due to increases in social security payments. Between 1984 and 1994, the maximum sole parent pension rates increased by between 11% and 15% in real terms.

Increases in real disposable income of two-parent households, with dependent children only, ranged from 12% (\$76 per week) for those with one dependent child to 2% (\$14 per week) for those with three dependent children. These increases are linked to rises in the labour force participation rates of married women with dependent children.

Households without children

Among households without children, young households (reference person aged under 25 years) and older households (reference person aged 55–64 years) experienced large reductions in real disposable income between 1984 and 1994. This is linked to rising unemployment rates among 55–64 year olds combined with decreasing rates of full-time employment, particularly among 55–59 year old men, due to the continuing trend towards early retirement from full-time work (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Early

retirement among men, pp. 126–129). In the case of young people, lower rates of full-time employment (partly due to increased participation in full-time study) and decreases in the value of real full-time and part-time earnings (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Youth income, pp. 121–124) have contributed to the decrease in real disposable incomes during this period.

In both age groups, one-person households experienced bigger losses than couple-only households. In 1994 young one-person households were 26% (\$94 per week) worse off than in 1984. Young couples were 9% (\$64 per week) worse off. Singles aged 55–64 years experienced a 17% (\$46 per week) loss in real disposable income while couples in the same age group lost 8% (\$39 per week).

On average, aged households (reference person aged 65 or more) maintained about the same level of real disposable income, or buying power, between 1984 and 1994. This was the case for aged people living alone and for those living with a partner.

Over 60% of the aged population (women over 60 and men over 65) receive the age pension. An increase of 5% in the real value of the maximum age pension rate between 1984 and 1994 has helped to maintain real disposable incomes of aged households during this period.

Selected household types	Average per week		Change 1984 to 1994		Households 1994
	1984	1994			
	\$	\$	\$	%	'000
One person, aged:					
Under 25 years	366.88	273.25	-93.63	-25.5	94.4
25–34 years	444.13	425.33	-18.80	-4.2	201.7
35–44 years	460.85	436.44	-24.41	-5.3	183.9
45–54 years	394.68	385.73	-8.95	-2.3	178.2
55–64 years	265.66	219.59	-46.07	-17.3	201.4
65 years and over	204.46	207.00	2.54	1.2	582.4
Couple only, reference person aged:					
Under 25 years	712.13	647.81	-64.32	-9.0	122.7
25–34 years	827.40	816.13	-11.27	-1.4	298.6
35–44 years	819.08	856.62	37.54	4.6	131.0
45–54 years	651.53	666.45	14.92	2.3	291.9
55–64 years	501.05	462.44	-38.61	-7.7	343.2
65 years and over	361.56	360.83	-0.73	-0.2	523.1

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: The Effects of Government Benefits and Taxes on Household Income (Cat. no. 6537.0).

Youth income

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

Between 1985 and 1995 the proportion of young people with full-time jobs has fallen. The earnings of young employees compared to older workers have also declined.

Young people depend on their parents for shelter, and for financial and emotional support. However, the need for support changes as teenagers progress to adulthood and seek to establish their independence. The period of this transition can vary greatly among young people depending on their individual capacities and life opportunities.

Some young people enter the full-time labour force soon after leaving school and earn sufficient income to live independently. In 1995, 17% of 15–19 year olds had full-time jobs with average earnings of \$300 per week. However, changing patterns of involvement in education and work between 1985 and 1995 have meant that the proportion of youth in full-time employment has been declining. The amount of money earned by youth has, in real terms, also declined.

Trends in earnings from employment

Compared to the mid 1980s, rather than entering full-time employment, more young people have been completing high school studies to the end of Year 12 and then going on to TAFE and universities to enhance their career prospects (see Education — national summary table p. 66). After leaving school many young people also combine studies with part-time work (see *Australian Social Trends 1996*, From school to work, pp. 79–81).

Youth

Youth are defined in this review as all people aged 15–24 years.

Income and earnings

Gross income is the sum of cash receipts from all sources that are of a regular and recurring nature, before tax or other deductions.

Wages and salaries are the gross cash income received from an employer or from own incorporated enterprise.

Government cash benefits are regular, recurring receipts from government to persons under social security and related government programmes.

Other sources (of income) include profit/loss to owners of, or partners in, unincorporated enterprises; interest, dividends, rent, royalties, workers compensation, and regular transfer payments from other households.

Average weekly earnings is the amount obtained by dividing the total weekly earnings before tax of a group by the number of employees in that group.

In the 10 years between 1985 and 1995, the proportion of youth aged 15–19 who were employed full time declined from 32% to 17%. Over the same period the proportion who were working part time nearly doubled, increasing from 14% in 1985 to 26% in 1995.

Table 1: Youth income distribution, 1985 and 1995

Age and employment status	Proportion of youth employed		Youth average weekly earnings		Youth earnings as a proportion of adult earnings(a)	
	1985	1995	1985(b)	1995	1985	1995
	%	%	\$	\$	%	%
15–19 years	45.2	42.8	252	174	42.1	29.6
Full time	31.5	16.6	320	300	48.4	44.6
Part time	13.7	26.2	97	95	33.3	34.4
20–24 years	66.8	68.7	485	423	81.0	71.9
Full time	59.7	53.3	511	487	77.3	72.5
Part time	7.1	15.4	259	203	88.7	73.6

(a) Adult earnings were the earnings of employees aged 25 or over.

(b) 1985 earnings adjusted to 1995 dollars using the CPI weighted average over the eight capital cities.

Source: *Weekly Earnings of Employees (Distribution)*, Australia (unpublished data), Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

Gross weekly income	15-19 years			20-24 years			All youth
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Nil(a)	33.2	31.5	32.3	6.7	7.3	7.0	18.8
\$1-99	29.4	36.7	32.9	8.0	10.2	9.1	20.1
\$100-199	13.9	13.7	13.8	14.7	17.0	15.9	14.9
\$200-299	13.8	12.1	13.0	6.0	11.8	8.8	10.8
\$300-399	4.1	3.3*	3.7	13.0	17.1	15.0	9.8
\$400-499	4.5	2.3*	3.4	21.5	17.6	19.6	12.1
\$500 and over	1.1*	**	0.8*	30.1	19.0	24.7	13.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	622.2	594.2	1 216.4	714.5	695.6	1 410.1	2 626.5
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
Average weekly gross income(b)	165	134	150	424	354	390	297

(a) Includes nil or negative income from all sources.

(b) Of young people with positive total income.

Source: 1994-95 Survey of Income and Housing Costs (unpublished data).

The proportion of 20-24 year olds who were full-time employees also decreased from 60% to 53%. As with 15-19 year olds, part-time work has become more common for youth in the 20-24 year age group.

These trends explain much of the decline in the average weekly earnings of employed youth. In real terms (1985 earnings adjusted in value to 1995 dollars) the average weekly earnings of employees aged 15-19 fell from \$252 per week to \$174 per week and for those aged 20-24 from \$485 to \$423 per week.

However, the trend towards lower real earnings of young people has also been influenced by lower amounts of pay for both full-time and part-time workers. For example, the earnings of full-time employees aged 20-24 fell, in real terms, from an average of \$511 per week in 1985 to \$487 per week in 1995.

Youth earnings have also dropped when compared to the earnings of older people. Between 1985 and 1995, the average full-time weekly earnings of 15-19 year olds relative to the earnings of employees aged 25 and over fell from 48% to 45% and for those aged 20-24, from 77% to 72%.

Income distribution

Not all youth have income of their own. Some depend on others, usually parents or partners, for their livelihood. For those that do have income of their own, many receive this income not from employment but from government cash benefits.

In 1994-95, about one third of 15-19 year olds had no income. An additional one third had some low amount of income that was less than \$100 per week. For older youth aged 20-24, the proportion with no income was much lower at 7%. An additional 9% had an income of less than \$100 per week. In both age groups, the proportion of youth with no income was similar for men and for women.

By the time youth have reached their twenties, many have substantial weekly incomes. In 1994-95, over half of males aged 20-24 had an income of more than \$400 per week. A smaller proportion of women (37%) had incomes of over \$400 per week.

Sources of income

In 1994-95, most youth with any income obtained their income from paid employment. More than half (56%) of young people reported that their main source of income was from wages and salaries.

Main source of income for all youth, 1994-95

Main source	Studying		Not studying	All youth
	Part-time	Full-time		
	%	%	%	%
Wages and salaries	83.8	28.3	69.7	55.5
Government cash benefits	9.0	23.6	19.1	19.9
Other sources	4.8*	9.0	3.7	5.7
Nil(a)	2.5*	39.0	7.4	18.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	218.7	975.5	1 432.3	2 626.5
	\$	\$	\$	\$
Average weekly income(b)	353	108	373	297

(a) Includes nil or negative income from all sources.

(b) Of young people with positive income.

Source: 1994-95 Survey of Income and Housing Costs (unpublished data).

However, one fifth of all youth were receiving government cash benefits as their main source of income. The wide disparities in youth income reflect differences in dependency status, differences in employment/student status and, associated with these, their different sources of income.

The proportion of young people who reported that their main source of income was from wages and salaries differed according to their participation in education. For those who were not studying or who were studying part time, income from employment was by far the main source. In

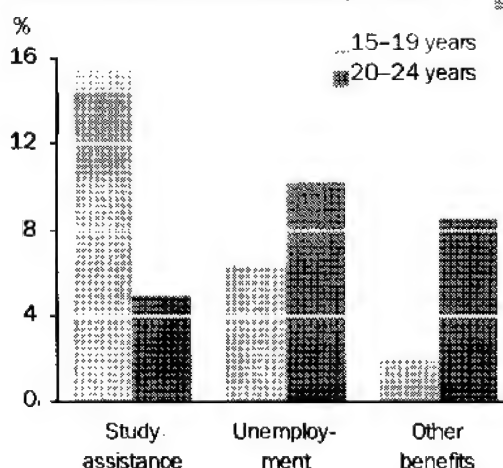
comparison only 28% of those who were studying full time reported income from wages and salaries to be their main source of income. 39% of full-time students reported having no income at all. These are most likely to be supported by their parents. In 1994-95, 89% of all full-time students in private households lived with their parents.

The Australian Government provides a range of benefits to support individuals and families in need. Some payments made to families provide extra allowances for young people who continue to live at home as full-time secondary school students. However, other payments are made directly to young people themselves.

Some income support payments such as the Youth Training Allowance (for unemployed people age less than 18) are specifically targeted to young people, while student allowances (paid through the Austudy and Abstudy schemes) are by nature mostly paid to young people (or if they live at home and under the age of 18 to their parents). Young people may, however, also be eligible for a range of other payments provided by the Department of Social Security. In addition to the Newstart Allowance (for those aged 18 and over actively seeking work) such payments include the Sole Parent Pension and the Disability Support Pension.

While not necessarily their main source of income, almost a quarter (24%) of all 15-19 year olds received government cash benefits

Government cash benefits, 1994-95



Source: 1994-95 Survey of Income and Housing Costs (unpublished data).

in 1994-95. Of these 65% (15% of all 15-19 year olds) received a study assistance payment making study assistance the main type of benefit received.

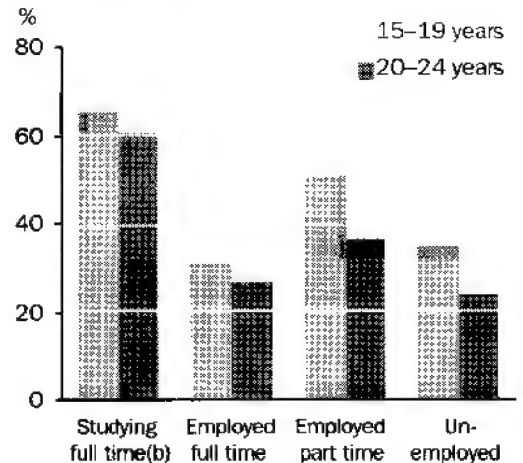
A similar proportion (24%) of 20-24 year olds received income from the government. Almost half of these were receiving benefits related to unemployment.

Income support from family

Most 15-19 year olds are still at school and are dependent on their parents as they have little or no income of their own. Numerous other young people also receive support from their parents to supplement their income. This support might be provided in many different ways (e.g. gifts of money, food, clothing, motor vehicles or assistance with housing rents). This assistance may continue even when they leave home.

In 1992, 39% of 15-19 year olds who had left home received some form of income support from relatives living in another household. 20-24 year olds who had left home were less likely to receive income support from their family, with 28% receiving support. However, the likelihood of being given support differed according to the activity of the youth.

Income support from relatives(a) for youths who do not live with their parents, 1992



(a) Excluding spouses and de facto.

(b) Some of these students may also be employed or unemployed.

Source: Survey of Families in Australia (unpublished data).

Among full-time students who had left home 65% of those aged 15-19 years, and 61% of those aged 20-24 years received income support from their parents. Many part-time students and unemployed youth living away from home also received some support from their parents.

Charity at home and overseas aid

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

In 1994-95, Australian taxpayers declared donations of \$4.6 billion to a range of organisations with tax deductibility status.

In 1996-97, the Australian government allocated \$1.5 billion to overseas development assistance.

Governments have recognised that in a world where individual circumstances and opportunities vary greatly, redistribution of incomes and resources is an important social justice and human rights issue. The need for assistance is demonstrated by the vast differences in social and material well-being between individuals and population groups, and between countries.

In addition to humanitarian reasons for assisting people in need, there is a recognition of the collective benefits arising from policies and actions which facilitate a more just and equitable world. The well-being and security of Australian citizens is dependent upon the well-being and stability of other nations, particularly our neighbours in the Asia-Pacific region¹. Economic benefits also accrue to Australians through the establishment of trade links, and in the delivery of official overseas aid. Many of the goods and services delivered as overseas aid are provided by the private sector, often by Australian companies and employees.

Within Australia, governments redistribute resources through a progressive taxation system, by the provision of infrastructure and

services such as education and health care, and by income support and benefits targeted towards those most in need (see *Australian Social Trends 1996*, Household income redistribution, pp. 117-120). The Commonwealth Government provides aid overseas, most of which is administered by the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID).

Charitable organisations complement the role of Australian governments in meeting human needs and in redressing inequities in Australia and overseas. The informal network of assistance provided by friends and families also plays a vital role in supporting and assisting people in need.

This review focuses on charitable organisations and their sources of income, and on official overseas aid provided by the Commonwealth Government.

Charitable organisations in Australia

Charitable organisations existed in Australia long before the development of a

by total income, 1993-94

Organisation	Sector	Source of income				Total	Total
		Government funding	Fundraising	Fee for service	Other(b)		
		%	%	%	%	%	\$ million
Australian Red Cross Society	Multi-service	79.2	15.6	(c)	5.2	100.0	176.4
Salvation Army Southern Command(d)	Multi-service	30.7	14.9	27.3	27.1	100.0	129.1
Salvation Army Eastern Command(d)	Multi-service	23.0	23.6	(c)	53.4	100.0	126.4
World Vision of Australia	Overseas aid	19.6	79.7	(c)	0.8	100.0	88.5
Wesley Mission Sydney	Multi-service	35.2	7.0	2.0	55.8	100.0	60.3
Silver Chain Nursing Association	Aged care	78.8	3.6	5.7	11.9	100.0	50.6
Care Australia	Overseas aid	9.9	17.7	(c)	72.4	100.0	43.8
Anglican Retirement Villages	Aged care	45.1	(c)	40.0	14.9	100.0	42.8
Endeavour Foundation	Intellectual disability	26.1	25.7	13.9	34.2	100.0	42.3
Royal District Nursing Service	Aged care	87.4	0.8	9.0	2.7	100.0	40.5

(a) Excludes education, health and religious services, and political parties. The quality of these income figures may be affected by differing accounting practices between organisations. However, they represent the best available data.

(b) Includes investment and commercial activities, international agencies such as the United Nations High Commission on Refugees and the World Bank, and other sources.

(c) Not separately available.

(d) These two commands of the Salvation Army are separate legal entities.

Source: Industry Commission, *Charitable Organisations in Australia*.

comprehensive government system providing for human needs². The not-for-profit sector still plays an important role in the provision of human services.

Charitable organisations range in size from small organisations based in a local community to large national organisations, many of which have international affiliations. Some rely entirely on volunteer labour, while others have paid employees as well.

Charitable organisations provide a diverse range of community and welfare services and goods, ranging from the provision of accommodation, food and clothing, to nursing home care and advocacy, counselling and legal services. Many organisations specialise in the provision of one type of assistance, for example, aged care, while others provide a range of services.

It is not known exactly how many charitable organisations exist in Australia, and estimates vary depending on the definition used. A recent Industry Commission inquiry into charitable organisations, excluding health, education and religious services, estimated that in 1993–94 there were between 10,000 and 11,000 charitable organisations in Australia receiving government funding. The number operating without government funding, and relying on volunteers and public donations was unknown².

Sources of income vary between organisations, and include government funding, public donations, fundraising, investment and commercial activities, and contributions from international agencies such as the World Bank. Many are also indirectly supported by the government through tax concessions. The Industry Commission estimated that the major source of funding for charitable organisations in 1993–94 was from direct government payments (\$2.7 billion). Clients of some services, particularly in aged care, pay fees, and these were estimated at \$1 billion. Financial donations to charitable organisations from the Australian community (individuals and businesses) were estimated at \$580 million. The sector's combined total annual expenditure was estimated by the Industry Commission to be \$4.8 billion in 1993–94. This was equal to 1% of Gross National Product (GNP).

Most charitable organisations are at least partly staffed by volunteer employees. A 1995 ABS survey on voluntary work found that about 800,000 Australians aged 15 years or over had provided voluntary work for a

Charitable organisations

Charitable organisations are generally considered to be non-government organisations primarily established for charitable and benevolent purposes, and not for the profit or benefit of the individual members of the organisation.

A recent Industry Commission Inquiry² examined such organisations which provide the following services:

- ◆ community services;
- ◆ accommodation services;
- ◆ nursing or convalescent homes, drug referral and rehabilitation, and blood transfusion services;
- ◆ employment and training services for the unemployed and people with disabilities;
- ◆ advocacy, referral, counselling, and legal services; and
- ◆ emergency and development assistance overseas.

Tax deductibility of donations

Individual income taxpayers are entitled to a deduction from assessable income for gifts of \$2 or more made to a range of approved organisations³. In 1994–95, donations to the following types of organisations were tax deductible:

- ◆ an organisation or charity which gave help in Australia;
- ◆ an approved overseas fund;
- ◆ an approved environmental or cultural organisation;
- ◆ a school building fund; and
- ◆ a registered political party.

The range of organisations with tax deductibility status is much broader than the definition of charitable organisations used by the Industry Commission. Most significantly, it includes political parties and organisations providing educational, health, religious, cultural and environmental services. These types of organisations are excluded from the Industry Commission's definition of charitable organisations.

welfare or community organisation in the previous 12 months (see *Australian Social Trends* 1997, Voluntary work pp. 109–112). They provided about 100 million hours of volunteer labour per year (this would be equivalent to 48,000 people working 40 hours each week of the year)⁴.

Individual donations

Donations to many charitable organisations are tax deductible. In 1994–95, 247,000 individual taxpayers (37% of all individual taxpayers) declared donations to a range of

Individual taxpayer declarations of donations(a), 1994-95

Taxable income	People in income bracket	Average amount donated(b)	% who donated
	'000	\$	%
Under \$10 000	658.1	17	18.0
\$10 000-\$14 999	1 093.3	26	27.0
\$15 000-\$19 999	1 055.6	33	30.0
\$20 000-\$24 999	1 199.9	35	34.0
\$25 000-\$34 999	1 836.2	45	41.0
\$35 000-\$49 999	1 392.6	73	49.0
\$50 000-\$99 999	636.9	148	54.0
\$100 000 and over	96.8	702	52.0
All taxpayers	7 969.4	58	37.0

(a) Donations of \$2 or more to organisations with tax deductibility status.

(b) Average of all taxpayers in each taxable income bracket.

Source: Australian Taxation Office (unpublished data).

organisations with tax deductibility status. However, this encompasses a much broader range of organisations than those meeting the definition of Charitable Organisation used by the Industry Commission. Different types of donations cannot be separately identified in taxation data. Some donations such as those to school building funds may accrue a direct benefit to families, and in this sense are not purely charitable. Total donations amounted to \$463.2 million, an annual average of \$58 for each individual taxpayer.

Among individuals who paid tax in 1994-95, the proportion in each taxable income bracket who declared donations increased with the level of taxable income. Of people with taxable incomes under \$10,000, 18% declared donations, compared to over half of those with incomes higher than \$50,000.

The average amount donated also increased with the level of taxable income. The average amount donated by people with a taxable income under \$10,000 in 1994-95 was \$17, compared to \$148 for those with an income between \$50,000 and \$100,000.

Overseas aid

While incomes vary between individuals and population groups within Australia, international comparisons show an even greater contrast in material and social well-being.

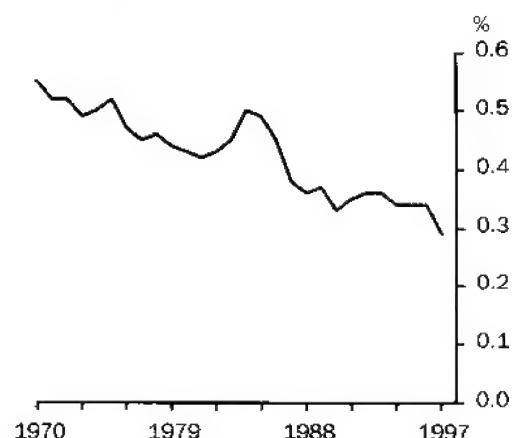
The Asia-Pacific region, where the bulk of Australia's overseas aid is directed, includes some of the poorest countries in the world, with per capita incomes, life expectancy and literacy rates much lower than those in Australia.

Papua New Guinea, which receives the largest share of Australia's aid, had a national income in 1994, measured as GNP per capita, of US \$1,200, compared to US \$18,000 for Australia. Average life expectancy at birth in Papua New Guinea was 57, 20 years lower than Australia's. Other countries in the Asia-Pacific region, amongst the poorest in the world with GNP per capita of less than US \$1,000, include Bangladesh, Burma, China, India, Laos, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Viet Nam¹.

To many developing countries, overseas aid represents a significant proportion of their total national income. Overseas aid (from all sources, not only from Australia), measured as a proportion of GNP, amounted to 7% for Papua New Guinea and Bangladesh, and 5% for Viet Nam.

Australians provide assistance overseas through two main channels. The Australian Government provides assistance to developing countries through the Overseas Development Assistance Program (the official overseas aid program), most of which is administered by AusAID. Many Australians donate their time, skills and money to non-government aid organisations (NGOs),

Overseas development assistance as a proportion of GNP for year ending 30 June



Source: AusAID, Australia's Overseas Aid Program Statistical Summary 1990-91 to 1994-95; and The Committee to Review the Australian Overseas Aid Program, *One Clear Objective: Poverty Reduction Through Sustainable Development*.

which also play an important role in overseas aid. AusAID and the NGOs cooperate in the delivery of overseas aid through a formal cooperation program.

A major review of Australia's official overseas aid program was completed recently. The committee of review recommended that the aid program focus more clearly on the objective of reducing poverty through sustainable development, and sharpen its geographic focus by donating to a smaller number of countries, while maintaining the

focus on the Asia-Pacific region. At present, the aid program requires that many of the goods and services delivered as aid, be provided by Australian businesses or agencies. The committee recommended that AusAID move away from this requirement⁶.

Official overseas development assistance

In 1996–97 the Australian Government allocated \$1.5 billion to official overseas development assistance. This was 0.3% of GNP, and lower than the amount recommended by the United Nations (0.7% of GNP). As a proportion of GNP, Australia's aid budget has fluctuated, but overall has declined in the past two decades, from 0.55% of GNP in 1969–70 to 0.29% in 1996–97. This decline has also occurred in other countries⁷.

Of Australian overseas aid allocable by region in 1994–95, 89% went to neighbouring countries in the South Pacific or Asia region (other than Central Asia). Each of the top ten recipient countries were in the Asia-Pacific region. Papua New Guinea received the largest single share of Australia's overseas aid, 28% of aid allocable to individual countries.

International comparison



Among member countries of the OECD's Development Assistance Committee, Australia ranked ninth in the proportion of GNP allocated to overseas aid. Only four member countries donated the 0.7% of GNP recommended by the United Nations.

Overseas development assistance (ODA) from OECD countries, 1995

OECD countries	ODA as proportion of GNP	GNP per capita
	%	\$US
Denmark	0.96	32 100
Norway	0.87	32 900
Netherlands	0.81	27 100
Sweden	0.77	25 200
France	0.55	26 500
Canada	0.38	18 400
Belgium	0.38	26 900
Luxembourg	0.36	46 200
Australia	0.36	18 600
Switzerland	0.34	44 800
Austria	0.33	29 000
Finland	0.32	23 700
Germany	0.31	29 300
Ireland	0.29	15 000
UK	0.28	19 100
Japan	0.28	41 000
Portugal	0.27	10 000
Spain	0.24	14 300
New Zealand	0.23	15 100
Italy	0.15	18 900
USA	0.10	27 400

Source: OECD, Development Co-operation: Development Assistance Committee Report 1996.

Top 10 recipient countries of Australia's overseas development assistance, 1994–95

Countries	Amount	Proportion	GNP per capita(a)
	\$million	%	\$US
Papua New Guinea	319.2	28.2	1 240
Indonesia	135.1	11.9	880
China	84.0	7.4	530
Philippines	71.4	6.3	950
Viet Nam	63.2	5.6	200
Thailand	42.2	3.7	2 410
Cambodia	29.8	2.6	n.a.
Bangladesh	25.3	2.2	220
Fiji	21.5	1.9	2 250
India	20.5	1.8	320
Other countries	320.2	28.3	..
Total(b)	1 132.4	100.0	..

(a) 1994.

(b) Excludes contributions to global programs which cannot be allocated to a particular country or region.

Source: AusAID, Australia's Overseas Aid Program Statistical Summary 1990–91 to 1994–95; and World Bank, From Plan to Market: World Development Report 1996.

Official overseas development assistance, 1994-95

Expenditure by sector	Assistance
	%
Social infrastructure and services	32.1
Education and training	16.7
Health	4.9
Water supply and sanitation	2.4
Population	1.6
Public administration	2.4
Economic infrastructure and services	12.6
Transport and communications	10.0
Energy	2.4
Production	8.6
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	6.5
Multi-sector	1.9
Program assistance(a)	27.5
Debt reorganisation	1.0
Food aid	6.4
Emergency assistance	3.6
Other	6.5
Total	100.0
	\$ million
Total	1 483.7

(a) Includes administration, general budget support and donor-specified goods and services.

Source: AusAID, *Australia's Overseas Aid Program Statistical Summary 1990-91 to 1994-95*.

This reflects Australia's close historical ties with Papua New Guinea, which was a colony of Australia prior to its independence in 1975, its geographical proximity, and its level of need for assistance.

Sub-Saharan Africa also receives a considerable proportion of Australia's aid budget, amounting to 9% of aid allocable by region in 1994-95, reflecting this region's level of need for assistance, largely due to civil conflict.

The largest single sector of expenditure was education, receiving 17% of total overseas aid. Transport and communications were also significant areas of expenditure, together

receiving 10% of the total budget. 10% of total aid was spent on food aid and emergency assistance.

Non-government organisations and overseas aid

There are about 120 non-government overseas aid organisations (NGOs) in Australia. The combined income of all the NGOs was estimated at \$285 million in 1993-94, of which \$71 million (25%) was provided by the government through AusAID. Public donations provided about \$173 million, and over \$41 million was received from other sources such as the World Health Organisation, and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees².

The largest two organisations, World Vision Australia and CARE Australia had incomes of \$89 million and \$44 million respectively, accounting for almost half the combined income of all NGOs. Africa received the largest share of overseas aid provided by NGOs, with a large proportion spent on emergency assistance³.

Endnotes

- 1 Hunt, J. 'Aid: The way ahead', *Development Bulletin*, Vol. 39, October 1996, pp. 41-42.
- 2 Industry Commission 1995, *Charitable Organisations in Australia*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Taxation Office 1995, *Tax Pack*, ATO, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1995, *Voluntary Work, Australia*, Cat. no. 4441.0. ABS, Canberra.
- 5 World Bank 1996, *From Plan to Market: World Development Report 1996*, Oxford University Press, New York.
- 6 The Committee to Review the Australian Overseas Aid Program 1997, *One Clear Objective: Poverty Reduction Through Sustainable Development*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 7 OECD Development Assistance Committee 1997, *Development Co-operation: Development Assistance Committee Report 1996*, OECD, France.
- 8 Australian Council for Overseas Aid, *Annual Report 1996*, ACFOA, Canberra.

Household expenditure on recreation

EXPENDITURE

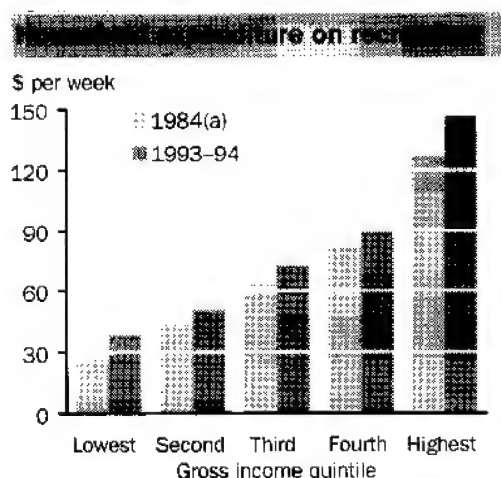
In real terms, Australian households spent 17% more on recreation in 1993-94 than in 1984 even though the size of the total household budget stayed much the same.

In 1993-94, Australian households reported that they spent an average of \$79 per week on recreation including holidays, entertainment, gambling, sports, hobbies, pets, books, magazines, TV/audio equipment and other recreational equipment such as sporting goods and toys. Spending on recreational activities and equipment represented 13% of the average household budget (that is 13% of total household expenditure on goods and services). Between 1984 and 1993-94, expenditure on recreation increased by 17% in real terms. That is, after removing the effect of price increases in the period, households effectively bought 17% more recreational goods and services in 1993-94.

Income and expenditure on recreation

Expenditure on recreation is closely linked to income level. In 1993-94 expenditure on recreation ranged from \$38 per week (13% of the household budget) in the lowest income quintile up to \$146 per week (15% of the household budget) in the highest quintile. All income levels had higher real expenditure on recreation in 1993-94 than in 1984. Average increases varied from \$7 to \$12 per household per week in the lower four quintiles, up to \$20 in the highest quintile.

In 1993-94 households comprising family groups with children in their mid to late teens



(a) 1984 expenditure adjusted using relevant CPI index and expressed in 1993-94 dollars.

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: Household Characteristics (Cat. no. 6531.0).

Recreation expenditure

The Household Expenditure Survey includes the following categories of recreation expenditure:

Television and other audio-visual equipment — includes TV sets and aerials; video cassette recorders and equipment; radio, stereo and hi-fi equipment; home computer equipment and software; TV games; video cassettes and discs; audio cassettes, tapes, compact discs and records.

Books, newspapers, magazines and other printed material.

Other recreational equipment — includes photographic equipment, film and chemicals; musical instruments and accessories; boats, boat parts and accessories; toys; camping and sports equipment.

Gambling — includes lottery tickets; lotto and instant lotto (scratch cards); TAB, on course betting; poker machines and ticket machines; blackjack, roulette and other casino type games.

Entertainment and recreational services — includes spectator admission fees to sports, cinema, live theatre, night-clubs, dances, museums, art galleries, zoos, national parks, agricultural and other shows and carnivals; sports participation fees and charges e.g. greens fees, sporting club subscriptions, health and fitness studio charges; hire, repair and insurance of audio-visual and other recreational equipment.

Animal charges and expenses — includes purchase of pets, pet food, veterinary charges and minding charges e.g. boarding kennels.

Holidays — includes air, rail, bus and other fares (including vehicle hire); petrol costs for holidays of four or more nights; accommodation charges; and package tours in Australia and overseas.

Household expenditure excludes any expenditure which is primarily for business purposes.

or older, and young couples (reference person under 35) without children, spent over \$100 per week on recreation. These households spent more than other household types on recreation partly because they had the highest disposable (after tax) incomes.

However, when household expenditure is averaged over the number of household members, those who spent the most on recreation were young couples without children, other young people (either living

Selected household types	Average age of reference person	Proportion of household budget spent on recreation(a)	Average weekly household expenditure on recreation		Average weekly household disposable income	
	Years	%	\$ per household	\$ per person	\$ per household	\$ per person
Lone person only — under 35	27	14.9	59	59	374	374
Couple only — reference person under 35	27	14.7	106	53	761	380
Couple with dependent children only						
Eldest child — under 5	32	9.9	66	19	621	180
Eldest child — 5-14	37	12.9	94	21	669	147
Eldest child — 15-20	45	12.8	108	26	800	193
Couple with dependent and non-dependent children	46	12.9	126	28	1 052	230
Couple with non-dependent children only	55	14.4	125	38	901	276
Couple only — reference person 55-64	60	15.2	84	42	453	226
Couple only — reference person 65 or older	72	13.0	53	27	359	180
Lone person only — 65 or older	75	11.4	24	24	199	199
One-parent household	38	12.3	64	21	452	152
Group household	31	12.9	93	40	754	329
All households	47	13.2	79	30	586	223

(a) Amount spent on recreation expressed as a percentage of total expenditure on goods and services (excluding payments of mortgage principal on selected dwelling, other capital housing costs, superannuation and life assurance).

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: Household Characteristics (Cat. no. 6531.0).

alone or in group households), and couples, without children, in the early-retirement age group (reference person 55-64). These households spent \$40 or more per person per week on recreation. With the exception of early-retirement age couples (among whom full-time employment rates were relatively low), these households also had well above average per capita disposable incomes.

Younger families with dependent children, including one-parent families, spent the least on recreation (around \$20 per person per week). These households also had the lowest per capita disposable incomes.

Elderly couples (reference person aged 65 years or older) spent significantly less on recreation than early-retirement aged couples. In 1993-94 elderly couples spent \$27 per person per week on recreation compared to \$42 for early-retirement aged couples. Elderly singles also had relatively modest expenditure on recreation (\$24 per week).

Little change in recreation spending patterns

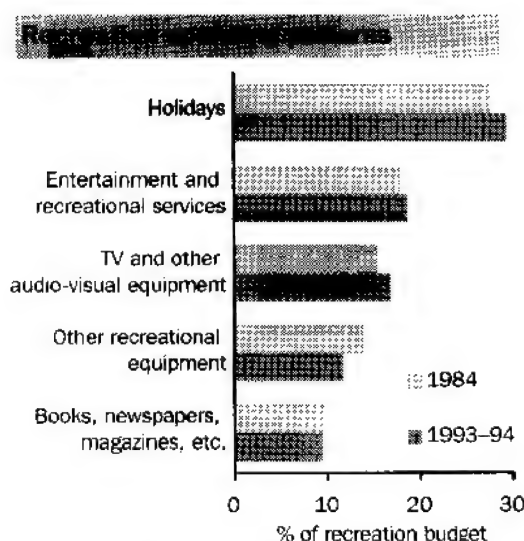
Although Australian households are spending more on recreation overall, there has been little change in recreation spending patterns.

In 1993-94, the three main areas of recreation expenditure were: holidays (accounting for 30% of the total recreation budget); entertainment and recreational services (19%); and TV and other audio-visual equipment (17%). Between 1984 and 1993-94, there appears to have been a small increase in the proportion of the household recreation budget spent in these three areas and a slight decline in the proportion spent on other recreational equipment, and on reading material.

In 1993-94 households spent 12% of their recreation budget on recreational equipment such as sporting goods, toys, musical instruments and photographic equipment, and 10% on reading material such as books, magazines and newspapers.

Young adult only households spent more of their recreation budget on TV and other audio-visual equipment than most other households and less on reading material such as books, magazines and newspapers.

On the other hand, older adult only households (reference person aged 55 years or older) spent less of their recreation budget on TV and other audio-visual equipment than most other households and more on reading material. These households also spent a



Source: Household Expenditure Survey: Australia: Detailed Expenditure Items (Cat. no. 6535.0).

bigger portion of their recreation budget on holidays than most other households and less on entertainment, recreational services and recreational equipment.

Families with young children spent more of their recreation budget on recreational equipment such as sporting goods, hobbies, toys and games than most other households and less on holidays.

Holidays

In 1993-94 Australian households spent an average of \$23 per week (\$1,220 per year) on holiday travel, accommodation and package tours in Australia and overseas. This represents an increase, in real terms, of \$5 per week (\$260 per year) since 1984.

Average weekly expenditure on holidays ranged from \$12 per household (\$8 per person) in the lowest quintile to \$48 per household (\$15 per person) in the highest quintile. The highest and lowest quintiles used more of their total recreation budget for holidays (33%) than the middle income groups (27%).

Older couples spent more of their recreation budget on holidays than any other household type: 46% (\$38 per week) for early-retirement age couples and 39% (\$21 per week) for elderly couples. On a per person basis, the biggest spenders on holidays were early-retirement age couples (\$19 per person per week) followed by young couples and lone-person households (\$15-16 per person per week).

Australian households spend a significant, though declining, proportion of their holiday budget on overseas holidays (40% in 1993-94 compared to 44% in 1984). Higher income

Selected household types	Holidays	Entertainment and recreational services	TV and other audio-visual equipment	Other recreational equipment	Books, newspapers, magazines, etc.	Total recreation(a)
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Lone person only — under 35	27.6	22.6	30.1	9.5	6.7	100.0
Couple only — reference person under 35	28.0	18.2	19.7	14.2	6.8	100.0
Couple with dependent children only						
Eldest child — under 5	24.9	17.7	17.4	18.8	10.1	100.0
Eldest child — 5-14	24.7	20.1	16.9	18.1	8.6	100.0
Eldest child — 15-20	24.0	20.3	20.0	13.7	10.6	100.0
Couple with dependent and non-dependent children	25.5	22.8	18.1	12.1	11.0	100.0
Couple with non-dependent children only	29.1	17.8	18.3	12.5	8.2	100.0
Couple only — reference person 55-64	45.8	15.9	7.3	8.1	9.6	100.0
Couple only — reference person 65 or older	39.4	15.0	8.0	9.4	12.1	100.0
Lone person only — 65 or older	32.0	16.0	9.1	4.7	15.6	100.0
One-parent household	31.3	22.0	19.0	10.7	9.3	100.0
Group household	27.7	21.2	20.7	9.7	8.8	100.0
All households	29.5	18.7	16.8	11.8	9.5	100.0

(a) Includes other expenditure on recreation including gambling and purchases of pets and pet supplies. See previous table for dollar values of total recreation expenditure.

Source: Household Expenditure Survey (unpublished data).

Household expenditure on holidays

Gross income quintile	Proportion of recreation budget spent on holidays		Proportion of holiday budget spent on overseas holidays		Average weekly expenditure on holidays		
	1984	1993-93	1984	1993-94	1984(a)	1993-94	1993-94
	%	%	%	%	\$ per household	\$ per household	\$ per person
Lowest	29.0	32.7	32.6	33.3	7.47	12.46	7.94
Second	27.2	26.8	38.8	37.7	11.40	13.51	5.70
Third	24.5	26.4	44.8	40.3	15.01	19.10	6.59
Fourth	24.2	27.1	43.2	39.6	19.18	24.27	7.85
Highest	31.5	32.5	47.6	42.3	38.95	47.58	14.78
All households	27.7	29.5	43.8	39.9	18.39	23.40	8.90

(a) 1984 expenditure adjusted using relevant CPI index and expressed in 1993-94 dollars.

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: Detailed Expenditure Items (Cat. no. 6535.0).

households spend a greater proportion of their holiday budgets on overseas travel than lower income households.

Sport and entertainment

In 1993-94 Australian households spent on average 19% of their recreation budget, or \$15 per week, on entertainment (such as cinema, theatre, night clubs, zoos and sporting events) and recreational services (such as sports participation fees and charges and the hire and repair of sporting and other recreational equipment).

Watching and playing sports are favourite recreational pursuits for many Australian households. In 1993-94 households spent an average of \$7 per week on sport: \$4.25 on sports participation fees and charges such as

green fees, court hire, sports lessons, equipment hire, and health and fitness studio charges: \$2.50 per week on purchase of sporting equipment; and 50 cents per week on spectator admission to sporting events. Total expenditure on sport ranged from \$1.80 per person per week in the lowest quintile to \$4.80 per person in the highest quintile.

Movies and live theatre are popular forms of entertainment and, despite the growing popularity of home videos, expenditure on these forms of entertainment has not declined. In 1993-94 households spent an average of \$2.50 per week on cinema and live theatre admission charges (about half on each). Expenditure per person increased with income level, from 60 cents per person per week in the lowest quintile to \$1.70 in the highest quintile.

Year and income level	Sport			Total sport	Cinema and live theatre
	Participation fees/charges	Equipment purchase	Spectator admission		
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
1984(a) (per household)	3.90	1.85	0.68	6.43	2.29
1993-94 (per household)	4.25	2.50	0.53	7.28	2.48
1993-94 (per person)	1.62	0.95	0.20	2.77	0.94
Lowest quintile	0.87	0.82	0.10	1.79	0.59
Second quintile	1.14	0.38	0.10	1.62	0.50
Third quintile	1.15	0.78	0.17	2.09	0.67
Fourth quintile	1.74	0.74	0.20	2.68	0.86
Highest quintile	2.61	1.80	0.35	4.76	1.74

(a) 1984 expenditure adjusted using relevant CPI index for each expenditure group and expressed in 1993-94 dollars.

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: Detailed Expenditure Items (Cat. no. 6535.0).

TV and other audio-visual equipment

Purchases of television and other audio-visual equipment (including tapes, discs and cassettes) accounted for 17% of the household recreation budget or \$13 per week. Of this amount, households spent an average of \$4.50 per week on radio and stereo/hi-fi equipment (including audio discs, records, cassettes and tapes); \$3.70 per week on home computer equipment and software; \$3.00 on television and TV games; and \$2 per week on video cassette recorders and equipment (including blank and pre-recorded video cassettes and discs). Households spent a further \$1.40 per week on video hire.

Between 1984 and 1993-94 spending on TV and other audio-visual equipment increased in real terms by an average of \$7.10 per household per week. Almost half of this increase (\$3.20) was for home computer equipment and software.

As with other types of recreation expenditure, spending on TV and other audio-visual equipment increased with household income; from \$3.10 per person per week in the lowest quintile to \$7.40 in the highest quintile. Younger households spent more than older households on TV and other audio-visual equipment. For example, young couples spent \$21 per week; young one-person households spent \$18 per week; elderly couples spent \$4.30 per week and elderly one-person households spent \$2.20 per week.

Why has spending on recreation increased?

Between 1984 and 1993-94, Australian households increased their spending on recreation, even though total expenditure on goods and services has changed little in the same period.

Changing expenditure patterns

Broad expenditure groups	Average per week 1993-94	Real(a) change 1984 to 1993-94
	\$	\$
Current housing costs	85.38	12.19
Recreation	79.34	11.34
Household furnishings, equipment, services and operations(b)	87.91	5.53
Clothing and footwear	33.71	-3.48
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	111.00	-3.75
Medical, health and personal care	38.51	-4.71
Transport	93.58	-7.69
Tobacco and alcohol	26.65	-10.67
All goods and services(c)	602.11	-3.15

(a) Change expressed in 1993-94 dollars. 1984 expenditure inflated using relevant CPI index for each expenditure group. All groups index used for total goods and services.

(b) Includes fuel and power.

(c) Includes miscellaneous goods and services.

Source: Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: Detailed Expenditure Items (Cat. no. 6535.0).

All household types reported increased real expenditure on recreation, from \$1.50 per week for elderly one-person households up to \$23 per week for young couples without children.

It would appear that consumers have generally changed their preferences in favour of recreational activities and away from other discretionary expenditure, tobacco and alcohol for example. Between 1984 and 1993-94 expenditure on tobacco and alcoholic beverages declined in real terms by \$11 per household per week.

Housing

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During the period 1983 to 1996, the average housing loan for a newly erected dwelling has increased from about twice average male full-time annual earnings to about three times.

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Many people rely on government assistance to obtain housing. In 1995, the most common form of housing assistance was private rent assistance.

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In 1996, 11% of young people aged 15–19, and 51% of young people aged 20–24 had formed their own households.

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Between 1973–74 and 1993–94, residential energy consumption per person increased by 16%. However, as a proportion of total energy use, residential energy consumption declined slightly over the period.

Housing — national summary



HOUSING STOCK	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Occupied private dwellings	'000	5 629	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6 173	6 319	6 483	6 635	6 768	n.a.
Houses (of dwellings)	%	80.2	n.a.	80.0	n.a.	80.7	n.a.	78.2	n.a.	79.4	79.3	n.a.
Flats and apartments (of dwellings)	%	9.6	n.a.	8.9	n.a.	11.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.5	10.9	n.a.
Owned (of dwellings)	%	38.6	n.a.	42.9	n.a.	42.4	n.a.	41.6	n.a.	41.8	43.1	n.a.
Being purchased (of dwellings)	%	32.0	n.a.	29.1	n.a.	29.2	n.a.	27.6	n.a.	28.3	27.2	n.a.
Public rental (of dwellings)	%	5.4	n.a.	5.4	n.a.	5.8	n.a.	5.6	n.a.	6.2	5.4	n.a.
Size of new private sector houses	m ²	178	182	186	190	189	188	187	189	192	197	205
Size of new public sector houses	m ²	108	111	114	114	110	121	122	130	141	141	150
Private sector dwellings completed	'000	126.5	106.2	107.7	139.4	147.5	122.9	123.0	145.2	157.3	162.4	128.1
Public sector dwellings completed	'000	13.9	13.6	10.7	11.0	12.5	11.5	9.7	11.1	9.9	7.8	6.9

HOUSING COSTS	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Housing interest rate	%	13.8	15.5	14.2	15.3	16.9	15.1	11.9	9.9	8.9	10.0	10.3
Affordability index	no.	141.1	135.1	135.1	110.1	100.9	111.7	133.9	152.1	162.8	140.9	141.7
Average weekly earnings index	no.	76.7	82.2	87.2	93.5	100.0	106.6	111.5	113.5	116.9	121.7	127.2
Private rental cost index	no.	68.6	75.7	83.7	92.7	100.0	104.7	106.3	106.7	107.1	108.1	112.4
Public rental cost index	no.	67.9	74.0	85.1	94.5	100.0	105.0	110.0	112.5	115.3	118.5	119.3
Project home price index	no.	n.a.	71.9	77.1	91.4	100.0	102.1	102.1	103.0	105.8	108.1	109.5
Established home price index	no.	n.a.	62.6	69.5	92.2	100.0	100.8	104.6	106.0	109.1	112.6	112.7
Materials used in house building price index	no.	n.a.	77.9	83.8	92.9	100.0	104.6	104.9	106.9	112.0	115.4	115.7
Finance commitments for newly constructed houses	'000	17.0	15.3	15.7	16.1	11.9	13.0	16.0	15.7	18.6	15.3	14.7
Finance commitments for newly constructed houses	\$m	728	720	844	1 002	880	1 041	1 312	1 315	1 724	1 547	1 472
Finance commitments for alterations and additions	\$m	507	499	707	998	905	983	1 359	1 642	2 899	3 477	3 509

HOUSING ASSISTANCE	Units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Public sector dwelling stock	'000	288.3	315.5	327.7	337.7	351.7	362.0	369.5	376.7	383.6	388.6	n.y.a.
Housing waiting list	'000	156.2	168.7	198.1	200.9	195.0	202.3	216.3	232.2	235.4	234.7	n.y.a.
Applicants accommodated	'000	46.5	49.8	47.8	49.3	53.1	51.9	49.3	54.2	55.1	52.5	n.y.a.

Reference periods:

Except for the number of occupied private dwellings and the proportions which are houses, flats and apartments, owned, being purchased, and public rental, figures are for the year ending 30 June.

Housing — State summary

HOUSING STOCK	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Occupied private dwellings	'000	1995	2 252.6	1 692.9	1 225.5	590.0	653.6	184.9	57.4	111.0	6 768.0
Houses (of dwellings)	%	1995	76.7	80.7	81.7	78.2	79.8	89.1	69.6	77.5	79.3
Flats and apartments (of dwellings)	%	1995	13.3	11.8	9.8	9.1	4.9	7.3	16.2	10.0	10.9
Owned (of dwellings)	%	1995	44.7	45.8	42.7	41.9	36.3	46.9	16.1	29.5	43.1
Being purchased (of dwellings)	%	1995	24.8	28.6	26.4	26.5	32.7	25.0	31.9	34.2	27.2
Public rental (of dwellings)	%	1995	5.3	3.5	3.8	11.8	5.0	8.7	22.1	9.9	5.4
Size of new private sector houses	m ²	1995-96	203	199	207	195	222	182	190	175	205
Size of new public sector houses	m ²	1995-96	171	140	135	143	140	142	208	138	150
Dwellings completed	'000	1995-96	44.8	24.8	35.0	6.5	17.4	2.6	1.5	2.4	135.0

HOUSING COSTS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Affordability index(a)	no.	1995-96	104.1	146.4	140.8	168.9	154.3	181.4	n.a.	161.6	141.7
Project home price index(a)	no.	1995-96	110.2	107.3	113.7	112.8	101.6	123.4	129.9	124.7	109.5
Established home price index(a)	no.	1995-96	115.8	97.6	136.8	108.3	108.2	129.8	188.0	127.8	112.7
Materials used in house building price index(a)	no.	1995-96	115.9	115.4	115.1	118.2	114.7	120.7	n.a.	n.a.	115.7
Finance commitments for newly constructed houses	'000	1995-96	5.0	3.2	2.7	1.4	1.2	0.4	0.1	0.8	14.7
Finance commitments for newly constructed houses	\$m	1995-96	551.7	302.1	282.1	116.6	111.1	23.2	7.4	78.3	1 472.4
Finance commitments for alterations and additions	\$m	1995-96	1 261.8	746.8	730.8	240.7	349.5	86.8	31.3	61.6	3 509.4
Mean weekly rent	\$	1994	135.0	115.0	116.0	88.0	104.0	93.0	98.0	128.0	118.0

HOUSING ASSISTANCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Public sector dwelling stock	'000	1994-95	132.4	68.7	51.5	61.4	36.5	14.6	11.1	12.5	388.6
Housing waiting list	'000	1994-95	88.2	51.7	28.5	37.5	13.3	3.0	5.1	7.3	234.7
Applicants accommodated	'000	1994-95	11.0	9.4	10.1	8.1	7.4	2.8	1.3	2.5	52.5

(a) State data refers to capital cities only.

Housing — definitions and references

- Affordability index** — the ratio of average household income to the average income needed to meet the repayments for an average established dwelling purchased by a first home buyer. A value of 100 indicates that a household with average income would meet the average income requirements to service the average mortgage. An increase in the index represents an improvement in affordability. Reference: Commonwealth Bank of Australia and the Housing Industry Association, *Housing Report*.
- Alterations and additions** — all approved structural and non-structural changes to a dwelling of a value of not less than \$10,000 which are integral to the functional and structural design of the dwelling, e.g. garages, carports, pergolas, re-roofing, recladding etc., but excluding swimming pools, ongoing repairs, landscaping, and maintenance and home improvements not involving building work. Reference: *Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia* (Cat. no. 5609.0).
- Applicants accommodated** — the total number of public rental applicants accommodated in a year. Reference: Department of Social Security, *Housing Assistance Act 1989 Annual Report*.
- Average weekly earnings index** — the total weekly ordinary time (before tax) earnings of full-time adult employees divided by the total number of full-time adult employees and expressed as an index with base year 1989-90=100. Reference: *Average Weekly Earnings, States and Australia* (Cat. no. 6302.0).
- Being purchased** — a dwelling that is currently being purchased for accommodation by the occupant(s) by means of a mortgage or other form of finance. Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Survey of Income and Housing Costs.
- Established house price index** — the price of detached residential dwellings on their own block of land, regardless of age (i.e. including new houses sold as a house/land package as well as older houses) expressed as an index with base year 1989-90=100. Reference: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (Cat. no. 6416.0).
- Finance commitments** — firm offers to provide finance for owner-occupation or alterations and additions which have been, or are normally expected to be, accepted. Commitments to provide housing finance to employees and commitments accepted and cancelled in the same month are included. Reference: *Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia* (Cat. no. 5609.0).
- Flats and apartments** — dwellings contained in blocks having two or more storeys of dwelling units. Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Survey of Income and Housing Costs.
- Household** — a person living alone or a group of related or unrelated people who usually reside and eat together. Reference: *Australian Housing Survey: Selected Findings* (Cat. no. 4181.0).
- Houses** — dwellings separated from other dwellings, buildings or structures by space of at least half a metre to allow access on all sides. This category also includes houses which have an attached flat. Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Survey of Income and Housing Costs.
- Housing interest rate** — the financial year annual average of the interest rate applicable on the last working day of each month to standard variable rate loans for owner-occupation of large bank housing lenders. It is the predominant or representative rate (or range of rates) of major banks, although some banks may quote rates outside the ranges. Reference: Reserve Bank of Australia, *Monthly Bulletin*.
- Housing waiting list** — the number of applicants (households) waiting for public rental accommodation on 30 June. Reference: Department of Social Security, *Housing Assistance Act 1989 Annual Report*.
- Materials used in house building price index** — prices of selected materials used in the construction of dwellings expressed as an index with base year 1989-90=100. Data for national total is a weighted average of six state capital cities. Reference: *Price Index of Materials Used in House Building* (Cat. no. 6408.0).
- Mean weekly rent**
Reference: *Australian Housing Survey: Selected Findings* (Cat. no. 4182.0).
- Occupied private dwellings** — the premises occupied by a household. Reference: *Household Estimates, Australia* (Cat. no. 3229.0).
- Owned** — a dwelling owned outright by one or more of the occupants. Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Survey of Income and Housing Costs.
- Private/public sector dwellings completed** — when building activity has progressed to the stage where the building can fulfil its intended function. The ABS regards buildings as completed when notified as such by the respondents (builders) to the survey. Reference: *Building Activity, Australia* (Cat. no. 8752.0).
- Private rental index** — the average rent of privately owned dwellings (rented through real estate agents in each capital city) expressed as an index with base year 1989-90=100. Reference: *Consumer Price Index* (Cat. no. 6401.0).
- Project home price index** — the price of dwellings available for construction on a client's block of land expressed as an index with base year 1989-90=100. Reference: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (Cat. no. 6416.0).
- Public rental** — dwellings rented from a State Housing Department, Trust or Commission, ACT Housing or the Northern Territory Department of Lands, Housing and Local Government. Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Survey of Income and Housing Costs.
- Public rental index** — the average rent of government authority dwellings in metropolitan areas expressed as an index with base year 1989-90=100. Reference: *Consumer Price Index* (Cat. no. 6401.0).
- Public sector dwelling stock** — those rental dwellings held by state housing authorities. Reference: Department of Social Security, *Housing Assistance Act 1989 Annual Report*.
- Size of new private/public sector houses** — average floor area of houses intended for private/public ownership at building approval. Reference: *Building Approvals Microfiche Service, Australia* (Cat. no. 8734.0).

Purchasing a home

HOUSING COSTS

Over the period 1983 to 1996 the average housing loan for a newly erected dwelling has increased from about twice average male full-time annual earnings to about three times.

People buy a house for many reasons. Although shelter and a secure centre for family life are perhaps the major reasons, economic reasons are also important. A house can be an investment or even, in some circumstances, a liability. For most Australians a house is certainly their greatest financial commitment and their most important asset. A house can also have a symbolic role in our society. Where you live and the house you live in can be used to indicate to the world your social position and values¹.

Because the social and symbolic values of a house are subjective and hard to quantify, this review by necessity focuses more on the economic aspects of housing purchase. However, the importance of these social issues is critical. People do not struggle to own their home for purely financial reasons. In 1991, among purchasers of separate houses in Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide and Canberra, the most important reasons given for purchasing a home were most commonly non-financial. About 60% of purchasers in each city stated that security of ownership or freedom were the most important reason they had bought a house. Among people who had

bought their home during the previous five years, the most commonly given main disadvantage of buying a home was the high cost of paying their mortgage. However, over 90% of these owners judged that the advantages of ownership outweighed the disadvantages².

Most housing decisions are closely related to people's lifecycle stage. Housing needs vary over people's lives and the value placed on home ownership and the type of home and tenure chosen changes with time and economic circumstances.

In 1994, people who had recently (during 1992-94) bought their first home, mainly bought a separate house (82%). 73% of these separate houses were bought by couples. Lone people who recently bought their first home were predominantly younger than 45; less likely than couples to buy a separate house (54% of lone people and 88% of couples); and more likely than couples to buy medium density housing (45% of lone people and 12% of couples) such as a town house, unit or flat. Lone people aged over 65 who had recently sold a home and bought another

Most important reasons

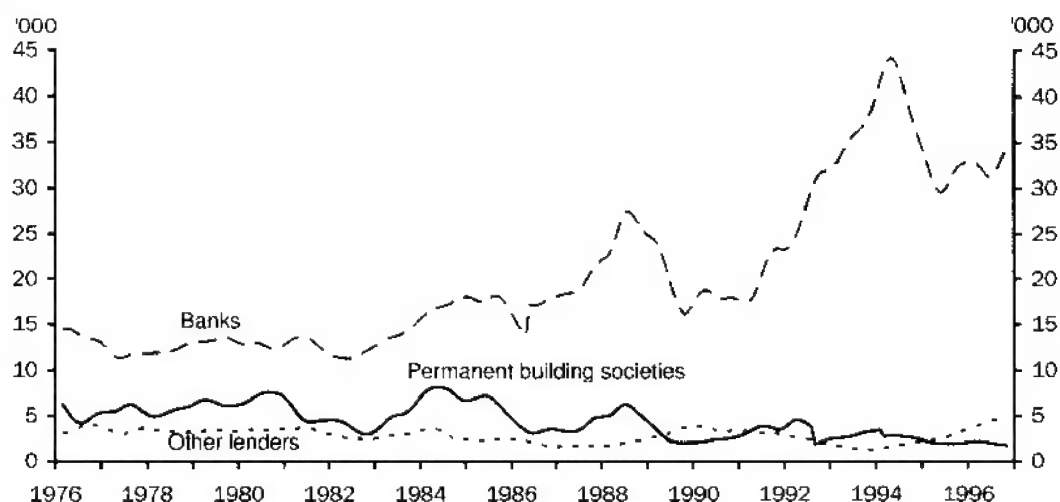
Most important reason	Sydney	Melbourne	Adelaide	Canberra
	%	%	%	%
Non-financial				
Security of ownership	46.5	46.8	52.1	52.9
Freedom to do your own thing	14.4	14.3	5.7	7.1
Pride in your achievement of home ownership	7.2	7.7	8.6	5.1
Having your privacy	6.1	8.4	5.9	5.5
Feeling physically safe	2.4	3.2	0.6*	0.7*
Having no intrusion by landlord or agent	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.9*
Financial				
Cheaper than renting in the long term	4.6	3.5	7.8	9.0
Having an asset in old age	4.9	4.4	4.7	4.9
Having an investment for your children	3.4	2.4	5.2	4.5
Expecting investment returns	2.9	2.1	2.2	2.3
Having a hedge against inflation	1.0	0.9	0.8	2.8
Total(b)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(a) Refers only to separate houses.

(b) Includes other category and reason not stated.

Source: *Housing Characteristics and Decisions: A Comparative Study of Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide and Canberra* (Cat. no. 8710.0).

Number of dwellings financed per month(a)



(a) Based on trend data.

Source: *Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia* (Cat. no. 5609.0).

home were more likely to buy a medium density home (61%) than a separate house (39%).

Borrowing the money

Most Australians borrow money to buy their home. Banks have always dominated the home lending market and until 1994 were increasing that dominance. However, their share of the market has recently been reduced slightly by other lenders, such as mortgage managers. The statistical picture is somewhat distorted by a number of building societies becoming banks.

Before the deregulation of the financial industry in the mid 1980s (when foreign banks were allowed into Australia and foreign investment was liberalised) and before the ceiling of 13.5% on housing interest rates was removed in April 1986 from new loans, home loans were fairly inflexible. The number of loans issued between 1976 and 1986 remained relatively stable. Home loans were typically offered at a variable interest rate for a period of 20–25 years. Furthermore, lending institutions protected themselves by conservative policies. For example, they required borrowers to have a savings record with them, to contribute at least 25% of the value of the house and that repayments did not exceed 25% of the borrower's income³.

Since deregulation, more flexible housing loans have become available. These include various types of low start loans (where the interest rate initially paid is less than a traditional mortgage but increases later in

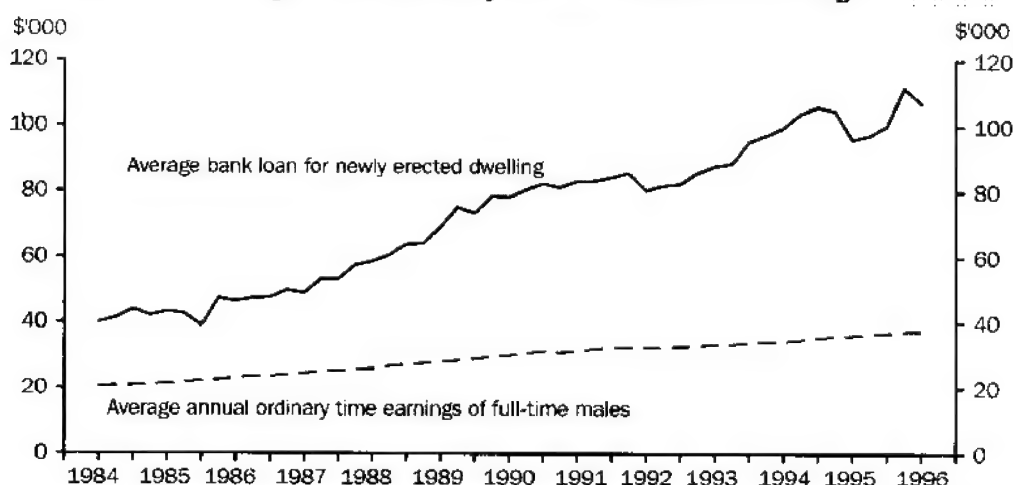
some form) and fixed rate loans (where the interest rate is fixed for a set period, thereby protecting the borrower from interest increase over that period)³.

Prior to the removal of the interest rate ceiling, housing loans were a less attractive investment for lending institutions because of the requirement to lend below the market rate of interest. Consequently, limited funds were available for housing loans. After removal of the ceiling, higher interest rates increased the supply of housing finance³. During the 12 months prior to April 1986 an average of 24,200 dwellings were financed per month. During 1988 an average of 33,200 dwellings were financed per month.

However, between 1988 and 1990 interest rates that reached as high as 17% and substantial increases in house prices, particularly in some cities, reduced the demand for housing loans. The rapidly rising prices led to a widening deposit gap for prospective first-home buyers. The deposit required to obtain a loan increased at a faster rate than they could save³.

The early 1990s were characterised by more stable house prices and steadily decreasing interest rates. These factors improved housing affordability and led to a dramatic increase in the number of dwellings financed (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Housing affordability, pp. 167–170). For the month of March 1994 the number of dwellings financed reached a peak of 57,200. The monthly

Size of average bank loan for a newly erected dwelling purchased for owner occupation and average annual ordinary-time male full-time earnings



Source: *Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia* (Cat. no. 5609.0) and Average Weekly Earnings (unpublished data).

figures for 1996 ranged between 32,900 and 42,600.

Despite the greater accessibility of home finance, low income earners may nevertheless find themselves unable to save the deposit and meet repayments for a loan. A survey carried out in Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide and Canberra in 1991 found that, among rental tenants, issues of affordability were the most commonly cited reasons for not having bought a home². (see *Australian Social Trends 1994*, Housing affordability, pp. 167–170).

How big a debt?

The ABS housing finance collection collates and publishes home finance data on loans from major lending institutions made by people purchasing homes for their own use. The number of loans made each month and the total amount borrowed each month can be used to calculate an average amount borrowed (these figures are not necessarily the precise average per dwelling because a house with two mortgages will be counted as two separate loans).

First home buyers borrow slightly less money on average than non-first home buyers. In 1996, the average amount borrowed by first home buyers was \$95,100. Buyers other than first-home buyers borrowed \$100,300 on average.

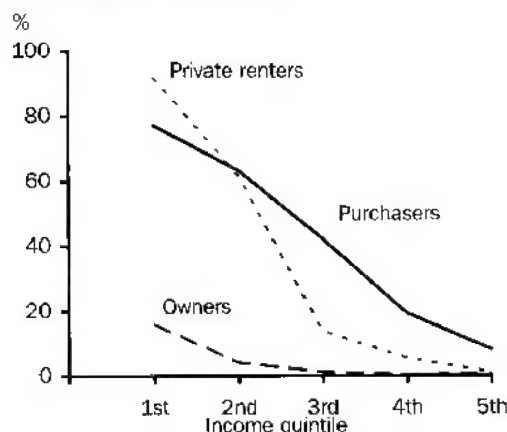
The average ordinary-time earnings (earnings excluding overtime) of full-time male employees can be compared to the average loan taken out for newly erected dwellings. This reveals that over the period 1983 to 1996 the average loan has increased from about

twice average annual earnings to about three times. This suggests that people are borrowing and spending proportionally more on a house than they did in the past. Part of this relative increase in borrowing may be related to the increase in the labour force participation of women (45% to 54% over the period 1984 to 1996). Researchers have suggested that this may be linked to the affordability of consumer loans, particularly housing loans³.

Part of the relative increase in borrowings is attributable to the booming prices that occurred in the mid to late 1980s when house prices increased at a faster rate than the Consumer Price Index (CPI). This boom was due to an increase in demand for real estate due to factors such as high migration levels, easier access to finance, and the decrease in stock market prices that made real estate attractive to investors⁴.

Another factor that may partly explain the relative increase in borrowings is that the 'average' home has changed, even over the last 10 years. Building in brick has continued to increase in popularity while the use of timber has declined. The average house has grown bigger; in 1981, 17% had four or more bedrooms compared with 23% in 1994. Increased car ownership has made car accommodation a common feature; while recently, ensuite bathrooms have also become common features. Even over the relatively short period between 1990 and 1994 the proportion of separate houses with more than one bathroom has increased from 26% to 29% (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Trends in housing, pp. 133–135).

Proportion of households spending more than 30% of their income on housing costs(a), 1994



(a) Comprises rates (general and water) payments, rent, mortgage repayments, body corporate fees, repayments on loans for alterations and additions, and repairs and maintenance expenses.

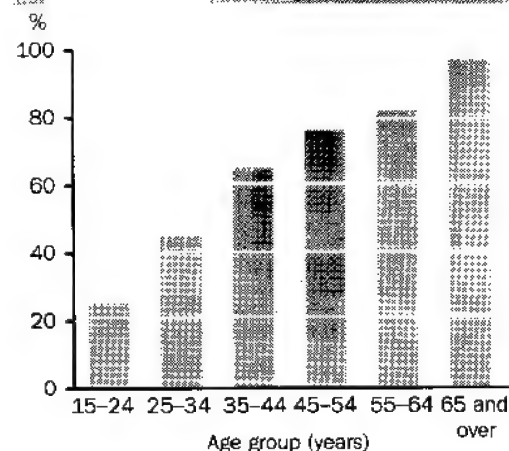
Source: Australian Housing Survey 1994 (unpublished data).

The economic advantage of home ownership

As home purchasers pay off their mortgage, the proportion of their mortgaged property that they own increases. This proportion is commonly called their equity. Since equity increases with time, it generally increases with the age of the mortgagee. In 1994, the median equity of home purchasers aged 25–34 was 45% while that for home purchasers aged over 65 was 97%. Outright ownership is therefore more commonly enjoyed by older people: in 1994 outright owners had a median age of 59 and 81% of them were aged 45 or older.

In 1994, 42% of houses were owned outright. Because they no longer have to pay mortgage repayments, these households enjoyed reduced housing costs and so effectively improved their economic position. Among outright home owners, only 5% of households spent more than 30% of their income on housing costs (these households mainly had low incomes and were most likely occupied by retirees). Home purchasers were the most likely to spend more than 30% of their income on housing costs: 29% overall,

Median percentage equity of home purchasers(a)



(a) Only includes households that were purchasing their dwelling and that stated the outstanding loan and estimated value of their property.

Source: Australian Housing Survey 1994 (unpublished data).

though the rate increased to over 60% among low-income purchasers.

- 1 The National Housing Strategy 1991, *Australian Housing: the Demographic, Economic and Social Environment*, Issues Paper No. 1, AGPS, Canberra.
- 2 The National Housing Strategy and Australian Bureau of Statistics 1991, *Housing Characteristics and Decisions: A Comparative Study of Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide and Canberra*, Cat. no. 8710.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 The National Housing Strategy 1991, *Financing Australian Housing: The Issues*, Issues Paper No. 3, AGPS, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1996, *Housing, Australia: A Statistical Overview*, Cat. no. 1320.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1992, *Housing, Australia: A Statistical Overview*, Cat. no. 1320.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 6 Connolly, G. 'Causality between consumer loan affordability and the female full-time participation rate in the Australian labour force', *Australian Bulletin of Labour*, Vol. 22, No. 3, September 1996.

Government assistance for housing

HOUSING ASSISTANCE

Many people rely on government assistance to obtain housing. In 1995, the most common form of housing assistance was private rent assistance.

Access to affordable and suitable housing is a major determinant of well-being. Australians are generally well housed, with a high rate of home ownership. In 1994, 42% of Australian households owned their home, and 28% were purchasing. Most people eventually own their home. 77% of households whose reference person was aged 60 or more owned their home in 1994.

However, many people, particularly those on low incomes, require assistance in accessing affordable and suitable housing. Long-term assistance for people on low incomes is provided through public housing and private rent assistance. The government also funds community organisations and local governments which provide short-term crisis accommodation to homeless people, and to those at risk of becoming homeless. A range of home purchase assistance is also available.

The need for housing assistance

The need for housing assistance is not only dependent on income. For example, many older people with low incomes own their home, have low housing costs and little need for assistance (see *Australian Social Trends*

Government assistance for housing

Australian governments provide a range of housing assistance. Public housing, mortgage and rent relief and home purchase assistance schemes are jointly funded by the Commonwealth and State and Territory governments under the Commonwealth State Housing Agreement (CSHA). The Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP) funds crisis accommodation for homeless people, and is also jointly funded. These programs are administered on a day-to-day basis by State and Territory housing authorities¹.

Many other housing services are provided outside the CSHA. The Departments of Social Security and Veterans Affairs provide rent assistance to low-income people renting in the private market. The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) and Aboriginal Hostels Ltd provide housing assistance for low-income Indigenous people.

The Commonwealth Government also funds accommodation for particular target groups through arrangements such as residential care for older people, disability services and housing for defence personnel. A considerable amount of indirect assistance is provided through tax concessions and pensioner rebates on rates.

This review focuses on housing assistance provided through public housing, private rent and home purchase assistance, and crisis accommodation.

Government assistance for housing

Type of assistance	Funding	
	1994-95	Recipients/year
	\$million	
Private rent assistance(a)	1 500	991 000 people at June 1995
Public housing(b)	1 600	6% (367 400) of all households in 1994
Crisis accommodation(b)	227	About 10 000 per night in Sept. 1995
Home purchase assistance(c)	818	11 900 loans granted in 1994-95

(a) Includes payments to Social Security clients, but not Veterans' Affairs clients.

(b) Includes funding for construction, maintenance, support services, and a component for administration.

(c) Includes funding for loans, mortgage relief and deposit assistance, and a component for administration.

Source: *Renters in Australia* (Cat. no. 4138.0); Department of Social Security, *Housing Assistance Act 1989 Annual Report 1994-95* and unpublished data; and Department of Health and Family Services, *Two Weeks in September: National Census of SAAP Funded Accommodation Services 10-24 September 1995*.

1996, Housing for older people, pp. 150-155).

Affordability is one indicator of the need for housing assistance. While there is no single measure of housing affordability, a commonly used measure is the ratio of housing costs to income². Households can be considered to have housing affordability problems if their income is relatively low (in the lowest 40% of the household income distribution) and they spend more than 30% of their income on housing.

Using this measure, 11% of Australian households had affordability problems in 1994. Households in the private rental market were most likely to have housing affordability problems. However, the affordability measure for private renters may be artificially high

Household characteristics	Weekly housing costs(b)	Proportion with affordability problems(c)
	\$	%
Tenure		
Renters	116	24.0
Public(d)	52	6.8
Private(d)	133	31.3
Owners	19	3.0
Purchasers	176	9.9
Household type		
Lone person	32	19.2
One parent	68	23.9
Couple with children(e)	102	7.4
Couple only	28	6.6
Other	128	6.7
All households	63	11.1

(a) Excludes households with no housing costs.

(b) Median weekly housing costs which comprise: rates, rents, loan repayments, body corporate fees, and maintenance.

(c) Low income households (in the lowest 40% of income distribution) who spend more than 30% of their income on housing.

(d) These figures include rental rebates to public renters, but not private rent assistance. The average value of private rent assistance has been estimated at less than half that of public rental rebates.

(e) Refers to couples with dependent and/or non-dependent children.

Source: Australian Housing Survey (unpublished data).

because it does not take into account the value of rent assistance.

One-parent and lone-person households were more likely to experience housing affordability problems (24% and 19% respectively) than couple households (7%). One-parent and lone-person households renting in the private market were particularly prone to affordability problems (62% and 44% respectively).

While affordability is one indication of the need for housing assistance, access to suitable housing is also an important issue. Some households may live in housing which is neither affordable nor suitable. Others may trade off suitability for more affordable accommodation. While their housing may be affordable, it may be too small for the size of the household, in need of repair, or located far from employment and community facilities.

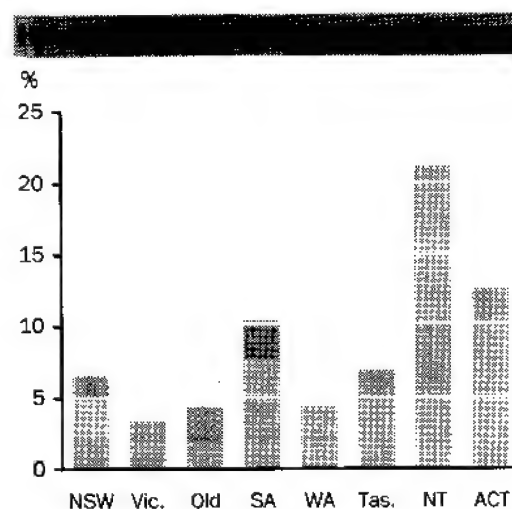
Overall, the vast majority of Australian households found their dwelling acceptable. However, in 1994, 3% of households expressed dissatisfaction with their dwelling. Households in public housing (8%) and in the private rental market (6%) were more likely to be dissatisfied than others. Public renters were more likely to express dissatisfaction with their dwelling than private renters, despite public housing being more affordable. This suggests that some public housing tenants trade off suitability for affordability.

Public housing

In 1994-95, government expenditure on public housing was \$1.6 billion¹, and 6% of all households (367,000) were accommodated in public housing. This was up slightly from 5% of households in 1976. The proportion of households living in public housing varied between States and Territories, from 3% in Victoria to 21% in the Northern Territory.

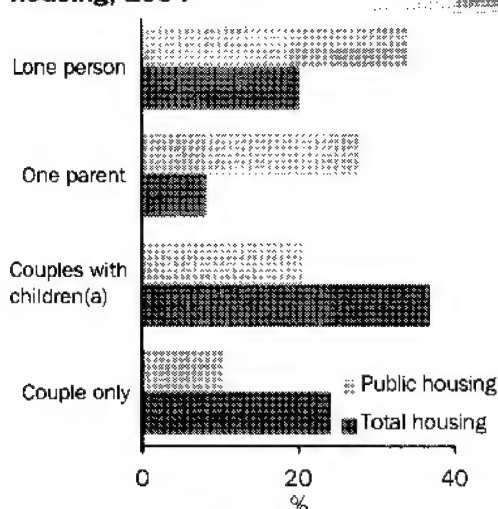
Public housing is provided at low cost. For low-income public tenants, rents are generally set at a maximum of 25% of income. The median weekly housing costs of public renters in 1994 was \$52, compared to \$133 for private renters.

Over recent decades, public housing has been increasingly targeted towards those most in need. In 1994, 78% of households in public housing were in the lowest 40% of the household income distribution. Government pensions and benefits were the main source of income for the reference person in 70% of public renter households, compared to 24% of all households.



Source: Renters in Australia (Cat. no. 4138.0); and Australian Housing Survey (unpublished data).

Household types in public and total housing, 1994



(a) Refers to couples with dependent and/or non-dependent children.

Source: *Renters in Australia* (Cat. no. 4138.0 and unpublished data).

A large proportion of households in public housing were lone-person and one-parent households. In 1994 one third (34%) of all households in public housing were lone-person households, compared to 20% of all households. 28% of households in public housing were one-parent households, compared to 8% of all households.

Lone-person and one-parent households have the lowest average incomes of all household types, and it is not surprising that they are over-represented in public housing. Many of the lone-person households in public housing were aged people.

One measure of unmet demand for public housing is the number of applicants added to waiting lists each year. The number of new applicants added to public housing waiting lists increased from 82,400 in 1984-85 to a peak of 139,700 in 1987-88, falling to 108,800 in 1993-94. Despite an increase of 45% in the number of public sector dwellings during this decade, demand exceeded supply by a ratio of three to one. That is, for every household newly accommodated in public housing, at least two more applied for housing³.

On average, people in public housing receive a higher level of subsidy than those receiving other forms of housing assistance such as private rent assistance. The average annual value of public housing rent rebates to low-income households in 1994-95 was estimated at \$4,000, while recipients of

private rent assistance received an average of approximately \$1,600.¹

Public renters also have a level of security of tenure not available in the private rental market. There are disadvantages however, in that public renters have less choice about where they live than those renting in the private market. In 1994, 6% of public renter households expressed dissatisfaction with the location of their dwelling, compared to 3% of private renter households. Furthermore, public housing may not be a viable option for people whose need for assistance is of a temporary nature.

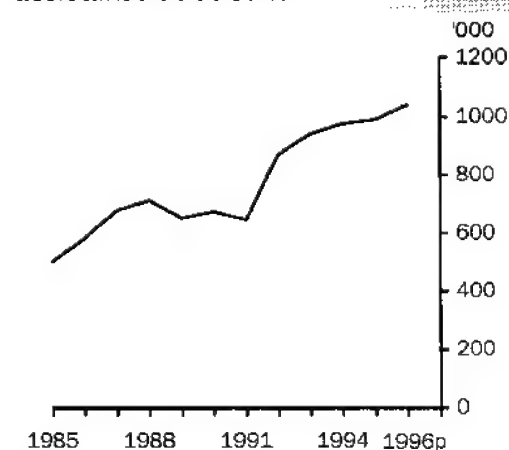
An Industry Commission report confirmed that public housing is a cost-effective way of providing housing assistance. However, the report highlighted the need for a mix of assistance measures, including public housing, rent assistance, and community housing, in order to meet people's differing needs⁴.

Private rent assistance

Private rent assistance is paid to people with low incomes who are eligible for a Social Security or Veterans' Affairs payment, and who rent in the private market. In 1994-95, government expenditure on rent assistance to Social Security clients was \$1.5 billion¹. In 1995-96, the maximum fortnightly rate for a single person with no children was \$73.80, and \$86.00 for a couple with one or two children¹.

In June 1996, 1,040,000 people were receiving rent assistance, substantially more than the 480,000 in 1984. This increase is

People receiving private rent assistance at 30 June



Source: Department of Social Security (unpublished data).

related to a widening of the eligibility criteria in the early 1990s, and to an increase in the number of people receiving government pensions and benefits. It is also related to an increase in the cost of renting in the private market (see Housing — national summary table, p. 136).

As with public housing renters, a large proportion of rent assistance recipients are either lone persons or lone parents. At December 1995, 60% of those receiving rent assistance from the Department of Social Security were single people and 18% were one-parent families. One quarter of all rent assistance recipients were over 70 years of age³.

Home purchase assistance

The Commonwealth and State and Territory Governments fund a range of home purchase assistance targeted at low to moderate income earners, including loans, deposit assistance and rental/purchase arrangements. The form of assistance available, and eligibility criteria, differ between States/Territories. In 1994–95 government expenditure on home purchase assistance was \$818 million¹.

In 1994–95, 11,879 housing assistance loans were granted¹. Of these, 9,352 were establishment loans and 2,527 were other loans such as second mortgages or top-up loans. The average value of establishment loans was \$70,000.

There was a rapid increase in the number of loans granted between 1988 and 1990 when mortgage interest rates peaked. Since then,

however, the use of home purchase assistance has decreased. This is related to a decline in the availability of assistance due to problems with home purchase assistance arrangements in some States. In New South Wales, for example, all new lending under the Homefund program was suspended in April 1993, and no new home purchase assistance products have been introduced since then¹. The decline is also related to a reduction in commercial mortgage interest rates (see Housing — national summary table, p. 136).

Crisis accommodation

The government also provides assistance in meeting the short-term accommodation needs of homeless people. Capital funding for crisis accommodation is provided by the Commonwealth Government through the Crisis Accommodation Program. In 1994–95 the Commonwealth allocated \$42 million to the Crisis Accommodation Program¹.

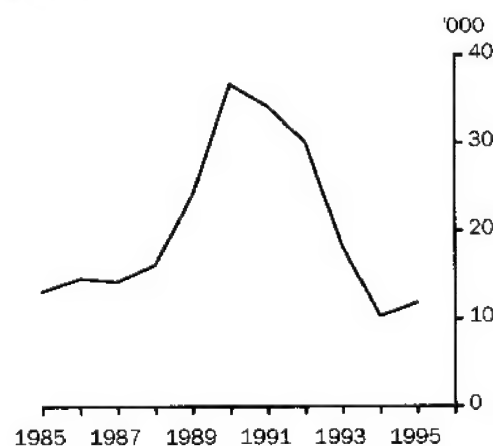
The Commonwealth and State and Territory Governments also provide assistance in meeting the needs of people who are homeless through the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP), a jointly funded program. The aim of the program is to assist homeless people to return to independent living. In 1994–95 \$185 million was provided under SAAP, bringing total government funding for crisis accommodation to \$227 million⁶. Funds are provided to community organisations and local governments for services such as refuges, shelters and half-way houses, and also for referral, counselling and advocacy services. Approximately 1,600 service outlets were funded under SAAP in 1994–95.

Most services funded by SAAP are aimed at one of five main target groups. These are: young people, women (and children) escaping domestic violence, families, single men and single women. However, some services assist people from more than one group. The nature of available SAAP services influences the type and number of people who receive assistance.

A two-week census of crisis accommodation services funded by SAAP in September 1995 found that an average of 10,800 people sought accommodation each night, 93% of whom were accommodated⁶.

Of those accommodated, 24% were in services for young people, 21% in services for women escaping domestic violence and 19% in services for families. A further 19% were accommodated in services for single people

Housing assistance loans granted at 30 June



Source: Department of Social Security, *Housing Assistance Act 1989 Annual Report 1994–95*.

People seeking crisis accommodation at SAAP funded services each day, September 1995(a)

Target group of service outlet(b)	Proportion accommodated	Proportion not accommodated	Total seeking accommodation
	%	%	no.
Young people	90	10	2 613
Women and children escaping domestic violence	95	5	2 200
Families	90	10	2 148
Single women	87	13	435
Single men	98	2	1 579
Multiple	94	6	1 807
Total	93	7	10 781

(a) Daily average during the period 10–24 September 1995.

(b) Some services may on occasion accommodate people outside their target group.

Source: Department of Health and Family Services, *Two Weeks in September: National Census of SAAP Funded Accommodation Services 10–24 September 1995*.

(mostly men) and 17% in services aimed at more than one group.

The proportion of people seeking accommodation who were turned away gives some indication of unmet demand for crisis accommodation. Overall, 7% of requests for accommodation were not successful. This includes some people who were double counted because they were turned away from more than one service. In addition, some people may have been turned away at one or more services, but found accommodation at another service. 55% of those who were not accommodated were turned away because the service was full.

While services for single women had the highest turn-away rate of prospective clients (13%), the numbers from this target group were relatively small. 10% of prospective clients were turned away from services aimed at young people and families, representing 4% of all those seeking accommodation (nearly 500 people).

Endnotes

- 1 Department of Social Security 1996, *Housing Assistance Act 1989 Annual Report 1994–95*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 2 National Housing Strategy 1992, *National Housing Strategy: Summary of Papers*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 1995, *Australia's Welfare: Services and Assistance 1995*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 4 Industry Commission 1993, *Public Housing*, Report No. 34, AGPS, Canberra.
- 5 Department of Social Security 1996, *Annual Report 1995–96*, AGPS, Canberra.
- 6 Department of Health and Family Services 1996, *Two Weeks in September: National Census of SAAP Funded Accommodation Services, 10–24 September, 1995*, AGPS, Canberra.

Youth housing

HOUSING AND LIFESTYLE

In 1996, 11% of young people aged 15–19, and 51% of young people aged 20–24, had formed their own households.

Leaving home and becoming independent is a significant event in a young person's life. An essential part of this process involves finding appropriate and affordable housing, especially near jobs, education and other facilities¹.

Living arrangements

In 1996, 64% of all young people were living with their parents. However, there were quite different patterns of independence within this broad age group. The proportion of young people living with their parents decreased steadily with age, from 99% of those aged 15 years to 31% of those aged 24 years.

In 1996, young people aged 15–19 predominantly lived with their parents. Only 11% of people in this age group had left to form their own households. Of these, 65% lived with unrelated people in group households, and 21% lived with a partner, with or without children. However, 51% of young people aged 20–24 had formed their own households. Of these 43% lived with unrelated people in group households, and 40% lived with a partner, with or without children.

For both age groups of young people living away from their parents, the most common form of household was a group household. For young people who have not yet formed their own family, a group household provides

Young people and housing

In this review, *young people* refers to people aged 15–24 years. *Older people* refers to people aged 25 years and over. *Young households* refers to households where the reference person was aged 15–24 years. *Older households* refers to households where the reference person was aged 25 years and over. This review excludes people living in non-private dwellings. In 1996, 57,000 young people lived in non-private dwellings.

A *reference person* is one of the partners in a couple family household; the parent in a one-parent household; and the person in a lone-person household. In other households it is an adult nominated by the household.

Group households are two or more persons living in the same household that are not related to each other by blood, marriage (including de facto marriage), fostering or adoption.

Outright owners are households where the reference person does not owe anything for loans used to purchase the dwelling, nor is their home mortgaged.

Purchasers are households where the reference person is paying off a loan or mortgage for the dwelling.

Public renters are households where the reference person rents from a State or Territory housing authority.

Private renters are households where the reference person rents from a real estate agent or private landlord.

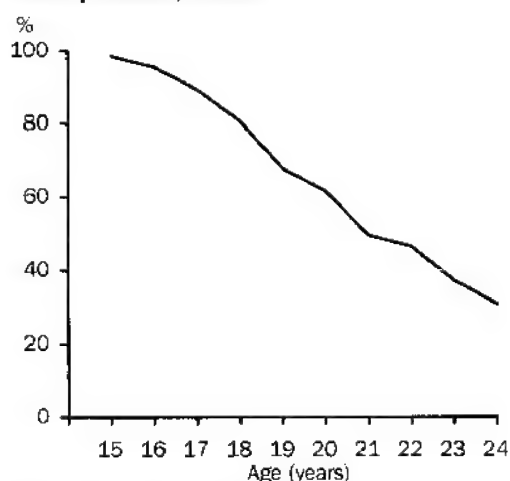
All renters include public, private, and other renters. Other renters are households where the reference person rents from a landlord who is an employer (private or government), an owner/manager of a caravan park, or a housing co-operative/community/church group.

Separate houses are self-contained dwellings with access on all sides (at least one half metre). They include houses that have an attached flat.

Semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses are dwellings with their own private grounds and no dwelling above or below. They are attached in some structural way to, or separated by less than one half metre from, one or more neighbouring dwellings.

Flats, units or apartments include all self-contained dwellings in blocks of flats, units or apartments that usually share a common entrance. They include houses converted into flats and flats attached to houses.

Proportion of young people living with their parents, 1996



Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

Living arrangements of young people, 1996

Living arrangements	Age group (years)		
	15-19	20-24	Total
	%	%	%
With parents	86.3	44.5	64.3
In own households	10.6	51.1	31.9
Couple only	1.4	12.7	7.4
Two parent	0.8	7.9	4.5
One parent	0.8	3.1	2.0
Lone person	0.7	5.6	3.2
Group	6.9	21.9	14.7
Other family households(a)	3.1	4.3	3.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000
Total young persons	1 198.2	1 328.7	2 526.9

(a) Includes young people living with relations who are not their parents.

Source: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (Cat. no. 6224.0)

the economic advantage of shared costs. Moreover, 59% of group households contained only two people.

Housing tenure and type

In 1994, 6% of the 6.7 million households in Australia were young households. 66% of these households were private renters and 6% were public renters. Relatively few young households were home purchasers (16%),

reflecting the time taken to save a housing loan deposit, and also the lifestyle priorities of this age group.

The tenure type of young households was related to the family type of those households and their life-cycle stage. In 1994, 34% of young couple-only households and 32% of two-parent households were purchasing their own home, compared with 10% of lone-person households, and 8% of one-parent households. The differences are partly explained by the lower income levels of lone-person and one-parent households.

Young households are more likely than older households to live in medium or high density housing. In 1994, 52% of young households were living in separate houses, 16% in semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses, and 32% in flats, units or apartments. In comparison, 81% of older households were living in separate houses, 7% in semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses, and 11% in flats, units or apartments.

Barriers to private renting

With two thirds of young households in the private rental market, barriers to renting may have significant impacts on young people. Some landlords and agents may have negative perceptions about young people, especially young groups wishing to share accommodation¹.

In 1994, 8% of young renters reported that they had been refused rental accommodation. Of those, 32% were refused rental accommodation because of their age, 17% were refused because they had no references,

Young households, 1994

Household type	Outright owners	Purchasers	Renters		All renters(a)	Total(b)	Mean weekly income	Total young households
			Private renters	Public renters				
	%	%	%	%	%	%	\$	'000
Couple-only households	2.8*	33.6	50.3	2.3*	58.9	100.0	846	93.7
Two-parent households	3.2*	32.2	47.8	8.8*	58.4	100.0	599	44.2
One-parent households	* *	7.7*	48.7	35.2	87.5	100.0	287	32.7
Lone-person households	3.5*	9.7	68.1	7.3	79.0	100.0	399	80.9
Group households	1.0*	6.2	79.9	1.9*	88.4	100.0	876	179.2
All households	2.1	15.6	65.6	6.3	77.1	100.0	707	430.7

(a) Includes other renters.

(b) Includes other tenure types.

Source: Australian Housing Survey (unpublished data).

11% because they were seeking to rent as a group, and 8% because they were students.

Housing affordability

There is no single standard measure of housing affordability. One measure used in housing research is the ratio of housing costs to income². Under this measure households are considered to have affordability problems if their income is relatively low (the bottom 40% of the household income distribution) and they spend more than 30% of their income on housing costs.

In 1994, 31% of low income households spent more than 30% of their gross weekly incomes on housing. However, young households with low incomes were more likely than older households with low incomes to have affordability problems (53% compared to 29%).

There were relatively few young low income households purchasing their homes (9,600). The majority of these (88%) spent more than 30% of their gross weekly income on housing, compared to 67% of older low income households who were purchasing their homes. Older households could be expected

Problem	Age group (years)	
	15-24	25 and over
	%	%
Water supply	22.1	13.8
Sewerage system	3.3	3.3
Electrical	26.4	25.9
Mould/mildew	25.9	17.4
Leaks/water penetration	16.3	9.2
Draughts	31.4	20.8
Infestation of pests	31.5	30.9
Security	11.6	5.6
Windows	33.8	20.1
Doors	22.4	11.8
Access	6.2	4.4
Inadequate roof drainage	10.1	9.1
Surface runoff	12.3	13.3
Structure	11.8	8.0
No problems	18.6	27.1
Total problems(a)	100.0	100.0

(a) Components do not add to total because there may be more than one problem in dwelling.

Source: Australian Housing Survey (unpublished data).

Low income households who spent more than 30% of their gross weekly income on housing, 1994

Tenure type	Age group (years)		Total
	15-24	25 and over	
	%	%	%
Outright owners	* *	10.4	10.4
Purchasers	88.4	67.2	68.0
Private renters	62.5	76.9	73.9
Public renters	9.7*	8.5	8.6
Total(a)	53.2	29.5	31.0

(a) Includes other renters and other tenure types.

Source: Australian Housing Survey (unpublished data).

to have greater ability to meet mortgage repayments. Of households in the lowest two quintiles, fewer young households (63%) than older households (77%) in private rental experienced housing affordability problems. This may reflect the greater proportion of young households that are group households.

Housing conditions

Dwellings occupied by young households suffered from a greater number of physical problems than those occupied by older households. Young people were much more likely to be renting, and in general rental households experienced more problems. In 1994, 19% of young households reported no problems, compared with 27% of older households. 21% of young households reported five or more problems, while only 11% of older households reported five or more problems.

Proportionally more young households were troubled by problems with water supply, mould/mildew, and leaks/water penetration (22%, 26%, and 16% respectively), than older households (14%, 17%, and 9% respectively). Young households were twice as likely to report problems with doors and security and one third more likely to report problems with draughts and windows, than older households.

Satisfaction with location

An important factor in housing suitability is location, especially in terms of access to work and services. In 1994, 87% of young households said they were satisfied with the location of their dwelling. Only 2% were dissatisfied, while 11% were undecided.

<i>Dwelling and tenure</i>	<i>Satisfied</i>	<i>Neither(a)</i>	<i>Dissatisfied</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Total</i>
	%	%	%	%	'000
Dwelling structure					
Separate houses	84.1	12.9	3.0	100.0	222.1
Semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses	91.5	7.9	* *	100.0	70.1
Flats, units or apartments	90.4	7.8	1.8*	100.0	137.4
Total(b)	87.2	10.6	2.2	100.0	430.7
Tenure type					
Outright owners	75.8	22.1*	2.1*	100.0	8.8
Purchasers	93.4	6.6	* *	100.0	67.1
All renters(c)	86.4	10.8	2.7	100.0	331.9
Private renters	89.2	9.1	1.7	100.0	282.6
Public renters	67.6	20.9	11.5	100.0	27.0
Total(d)	87.2	10.6	2.2	100.0	430.7

(a) Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

(b) Includes other dwelling types.

(c) Includes other renters.

(d) Includes other tenure types.

Source: Australian Housing Survey (unpublished data).

Young people living in semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses, and flats, units or apartments were more likely to be satisfied with the location of their dwelling (around 91%) than those living in separate houses (84%). This may be because separate houses are less likely to be located in areas with good access to public transport, and close to the work, educational, and entertainment needs of young households.

In 1994, young households that were public renters were least likely to be satisfied with their dwelling's location. Only 68% of young public renters reported satisfaction with their dwelling's location, compared to 76% of young owners, 93% of young purchasers, and

89% of young private renters. Older households living in public housing were more likely to report satisfaction with their dwelling's location (80%). This suggests that the location of public housing may be less suitable for young people.

1 Maas, F. 1995, *National Youth Housing Strategy Interim Report: Discussion Paper, Executive Summary*, Department of Housing and Regional Development, Canberra.

2 National Housing Strategy 1992, *The Affordability of Australian Housing*, Issues Paper No. 2, AGPS, Canberra.

Environment and the home

HOUSING AND LIFESTYLE

Between 1973-74 and 1993-94, residential energy consumption per person increased by 16%.

Substantial consumption of goods and services takes place in the home. Households consume foodstuffs and products, use various energy sources for power and heating, and various water sources for drinking, washing and maintaining gardens. This consumption is increasing and has considerable implications for the environment, in relation to depletion of natural resources, and the generation of greenhouse gas emissions, waste materials, and other pollutants¹. However, many households are using strategies to minimise their consumption of energy and production of waste, and hence their impact on the environment².

Energy consumption

Residential energy consumption per person in Australia has increased by 16%, from 17 gigajoules (GJ) in 1973-74 to 20 GJ in 1993-94. This rise is related to an increase in the average size of dwellings, and a decrease in the number of people per dwelling.

Total residential energy consumption in Australia increased by 51%, from 231 petajoules (PJ) in 1973-74 to 349 PJ in 1993-94. This increase is predominantly the result not only of this higher energy consumption per person, but also population growth and the associated increase in the number of dwellings (see *Australian Social Trends 1996* Australia's population growth, pp. 17-22). Between 1971 and 1991 the number of dwellings in Australia increased from 3.7 million to 5.9 million. An increased use of household appliances has also contributed to this increase in energy consumption.

Energy consumption			
Year	Per person	Total	Proportion of total energy consumption
	GJ	PJ	%
1973-74	16.9	231.3	8.8
1993-94	19.6	349.3	8.4
2009-10(a)	21.6	459.7	8.3

(a) Projected.

Source: Australian Bureau of Agriculture and Resource Economics, *Australian Energy Consumption and Production*, quoted in *Australians and the Environment* (Cat. no. 4601.0).

Energy consumption

Energy consumption in the home involves the use of various energy sources, including electricity, gas, wood, heating oil and solar energy. In this review, energy units are measured in joules (J) or watt-hours (Wh).

Gigajoule (GJ): one thousand million joules of energy.

Tetrajoule (TJ): one million million joules of energy.

Petajoule (PJ): one thousand million million joules of energy.

Gigawatt-hour (GWh): one thousand million watt-hours of energy.

Between 1984 and 1994, the average size of new private houses increased by 15%. Larger residential dwellings may require greater energy consumption for heating and cooling. Between 1947 and 1994, the average number of persons per dwelling declined from four to three. This decrease reduced the potential for energy sharing in households.

As a proportion of total energy use, residential energy consumption declined slightly from 8.8% in 1973-74 to 8.4% in 1993-94. By 2009-10, residential energy consumption per person is projected to increase to 22 GJ, a further 10% from 1993-94 levels. Taking into account population growth, total residential energy consumption is projected to increase to 460 PJ, an increase of 32% from 1993-94 levels.

Energy source and use

Different energy sources have different impacts on the environment. For example, most of the electricity generated in Australia is derived from fossil fuels, and contributes to greenhouse emissions and resource depletion. Conversely, solar energy is renewable and non-polluting. However, unlike electricity, solar energy is not widely utilised because of relatively higher establishment costs.

In 1993-94, electricity, natural gas, and wood were the main sources of energy used in dwellings. They accounted for 43%, 28%, and 23% respectively of total residential energy consumed, compared to 31% and 10% in 1973-74. 25% of all electricity and 14% of all

Residential energy consumption

Fuel type	1973-74	1993-94	2009-10(a)	Residential consumption in 1993-94	Residential as a proportion of total consumption in 1993-94
	%	%	%	PJ	%
Electricity	30.7	42.5	44.6	148.3	24.6
Natural gas	10.2	28.3	35.2	98.7	13.5
Wood and wood waste	32.3	23.4	15.4	81.6	76.2
Heating oil	11.7	1.1	0.4	3.9	83.0
Solar	0.0	0.7	1.0	2.4	100.0
Other	15.1(b)	4.1	3.3	14.4	n.a.
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	349.3	8.4

(a) Projected.

(b) Mainly coal and coal products.

Source: Australian Bureau of Agriculture and Resource Economics, *Australian Energy Consumption and Production*, quoted in *Australians and the Environment* (Cat. no. 4601.0).

gas produced in 1993-94 was used for residential purposes.

In 1993-94, wood accounted for 23% of total residential energy consumed, down from 32% in 1973-74. Over the same period, the use of heating oil also declined sharply. The use of solar energy increased but still represented less than 1% of total residential energy use. Most of the wood, heating oil and solar energy used was for residential purposes.

In 1993-94, 30% of households used electricity as the main source of fuel to heat their dwellings. 28% of households used mains gas and a further 18% used wood. Only 3% of households used heating oil as their main heating source.

The majority of households (62%) also used electricity to heat water, while another 31% used mains gas. 5% of households used solar energy to heat water.

Energy conservation

Although residential energy consumption has increased over time, many households use strategies to save energy. These include: insulation; window treatments; using cold water for washing clothes; and reducing clothes dryer usage. Also, many households consider energy ratings when purchasing appliances. Household energy conservation methods varied between the States, mainly because of their different climates.

In 1994, 52% of all dwellings had some form of insulation. 51% had insulation in the roof and ceiling, and 13% had insulation in the walls. Floor and other forms of insulation

International comparison



National residential energy consumptions vary. Cultural attitudes, energy prices, housing types, and climates vary greatly between countries, causing differences in the amount and types of energy consumed by households.

Of the countries selected, Sweden had the highest rate of residential electricity consumption per 1,000 population and Canada had the highest rate of residential gas consumption per 1,000 population. Australia was ranked 6th and 5th, respectively.

Residential energy consumption, 1994

Country	Electricity	Gas
	rate(a)	rate(b)
Australia	2.3	5.6
Canada	4.5	21.3
France	1.9	6.7
Germany	1.5	11.0
Greece	1.0	0.01
Italy	1.0	13.8
Japan	1.8	2.8
New Zealand	3.0	1.3
Sweden	4.8	0.4
UK	1.7	20.4
USA	3.9	20.2

(a) GWh per 1,000 population.

(b) Tj per 1,000 population.

Source: International Energy Agency, *Energy Statistics of OECD Countries, 1993-1994*; United Nations, *Demographic Yearbook 1994*.

Form of fuel used by households, 1994

Source	Space heating(a) %	Water heating %
Electricity	29.7	62.3
Mains gas	28.4	30.7
Wood	17.6	..
Heating oil	3.1	..
Bottled gas	3.4	2.8
Solar	0.1	4.9
Other(b)	1.5	2.3
No heating	16.2	..
Total households	100.0	100.0(c)
	'000	'000
Total households	6 414.5	6 414.5

(a) Main form of heating in dwelling.

(b) Includes unknown gas source.

(c) Components do not add to total as households may have more than one form of water heating.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices* (Cat. no. 4602.0).

were not common. The Australian Capital Territory had the highest proportion of insulated dwellings (80%), followed by South Australia (72%) and Victoria (70%). Queensland (29%) and the Northern Territory (44%) had the lowest proportions of insulated dwellings. In both the Northern Territory and Queensland, around 30% of owner households without insulation indicated that it was not needed because of the climate.

Methods of energy conservation in the household

Insulation and window treatments create a thermal barrier to reduce the rate of transfer of heat, from the interior to the exterior of a house in the winter, and from the exterior to the interior in summer. Roofs, ceilings, walls, and floors can all be insulated and the savings can be approximately 20% of summer cooling and 25% of winter heating energy costs. Window treatments like outside awnings or shutters, or reflective coatings on glass (tinting/solar guarding) reduce cooling energy costs by reducing the rate of heat transfer in summer. Window treatments like double glazing or boxed pelmets on curtains or blinds reduce heating energy costs by reducing the rate of heat transfer in winter.

Solar exposure is direct sunlight that is allowed to enter and be trapped by a dwelling. The more solar exposure a dwelling receives, the less other energy sources will be required for space heating.

Energy can be saved when *washing and drying clothes* if households use cold water and use clothes dryers less frequently.

Choosing energy efficient appliances involves consumers comparing the energy efficiency ratings of different brands and models of the same capacity and selecting those which have the highest rating.

In 1994, 45% of all households used some form of window treatment. Outside awnings or shutters were used by 28% of households, and 20% had boxed pelmets on curtains or blinds. Residents in the hotter climates (Queensland, Western Australia and the Northern Territory) made the greatest use of tinted and solar-guarded windows.

Selected energy conservation methods used by households, 1994

Method	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Insulation	44.5	69.5	28.5	72.2	52.0	62.7	43.9	79.5	52.1
Window treatments	39.0	51.7	45.6	53.8	43.2	32.9	42.4	41.3	45.0
Solar exposure(a)	57.3	60.6	51.3	49.0	50.9	76.7	42.8	76.6	56.4
Cold water used in washing machine(b)	69.4	47.5	73.0	48.1	59.1	58.6	70.3	61.1	61.2
Clothes dryer used only occasionally or rarely(b)	35.3	34.7	34.7	37.0	42.1	39.3	39.7	35.1	35.8
Considering energy rating of appliances if purchased appliances	39.2	37.7	31.3	37.7	32.6	35.7	27.2	47.2	36.5

(a) In lounge/living/family rooms.

(b) Only includes households with this appliance.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices* (Cat. no. 4602.0).

Sources of water used by households, 1994

Sources of water	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Mains/town	94.4	93.4	88.7	95.4	93.6	86.1	95.4	100.0	93.0
Rainwater tank	9.1	12.6	17.7	48.0	11.2	17.9	2.6	0.9	15.2
Spring	0.6	0.5	0.5	2.4	0.6	4.1	0.4	* *	0.8
Bore	2.2	2.0	7.5	4.4	20.9	2.0	7.5	* *	5.1
Bottled	2.5	1.3	2.1	9.3	3.5	0.6	1.8	1.3	2.8
Other	2.8	2.2	3.4	1.3	2.8	4.7	* *	0.3	2.6
Total households(a)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total households	2 157.7	1 606.4	1 142.7	567.3	610.6	179.9	46.2	103.6	6 414.5

(a) Components do not add to total as households may have more than one water source.

Source: *Environmental Issues: Peoples Views and Practices* (Cat. no. 4602.0).

In 1994, over half (56%) of households in Australia received winter sunlight in their lounge, living, or family room. In general, in those States and Territories which experience a more severe winter climate, dwellings were designed to let in more sunlight during the winter months. This was particularly true of dwellings in Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory.

In 1994, 61% of all households with a washing machine used cold water. Over one third (36%) of households with a clothes dryer used it only occasionally or rarely. Also, 36% of all households considered appliance energy ratings when replacing or acquiring appliances.

Predominant source used	Purpose		
	Garden	Bathing/ washing	Drinking
	%	%	%
Mains/town	72.6	92.2	84.1
Rainwater tank	2.3	5.7	12.6
Spring	0.4	0.3	0.3
Bore	4.4	1.1	0.4
Other	2.2	0.8	0.5
Bottled	2.1
No garden	12.6
Don't use water	5.4
Total households	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices* (Cat. no. 4602.0).**Water sources and consumption**

Access to clean water is essential for all households. However, mains/town water in Australia is not available in infinite supply, nor is it universally available. Some households rely on other sources, while many others are attempting to save mains/town water by supplementing it with water from other sources.

Mains/town water was a water source for 93% of households in 1994. However, only 86% of households in Tasmania used mains/town water. Around 15% of households used rainwater tanks as one of their sources of water, with South Australian households most likely to do so (48%). Only 5% of households used bore water as one of their sources of water, with Western Australian households most likely to do so (21%).

In 1994, towns/mains water was the predominant source of water used for drinking (84%). However, 33% of households connected to mains/town water were dissatisfied with the quality of this water for drinking. Dissatisfaction with mains/town water for drinking was highest in South Australia (51%) and is reflected in the highest use of rainwater and bottled water for drinking, at 37% and 8% respectively.

Mains/town water was also the predominant water source used for gardens (73%), and bathing and washing (92%) in 1994. 18% of households reported that they either had no garden for which they were responsible or they chose not to water it.

Conserving water in the dwelling, 1994

Conservation method	Households	
	'000	%
Dual flush toilet	2 503.1	39.0
Reduced flow shower head	1 399.5	21.8
Recycle/reuse water	850.8	13.3
Full loads when washing	1 034.3	16.1
Shorter showers	1 006.8	15.7
Turn off/repair dripping taps	1 509.9	23.5
Brick in toilet cistern	112.7	1.8
Suds saver on washing machine used	942.4	14.7
Other	539.3	8.4
No conservation methods	3 482.3	54.3
Total households(a)	6 414.5	100.0

(a) Components do not add to total as households may have more than one water conservation method.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices* (Cat. no. 4602.0).

Water conservation measures

Water conservation is important because water is a limited resource, and its capture and storage has environmental impacts. Water also requires electrical power to supply it to users, so the less water that is used the less energy is consumed for pumping and treatment.

Various water conservation methods are used by households in their dwellings and gardens. In 1994, 39% of households in Australia had a dual flush toilet and 22% had a reduced flow shower head. 24% of households reported turning off and repairing dripping taps to conserve water, while 16% took shorter

showers. 16% used washing machines with full loads and 15% used suds saver. 13% of households recycled or reused water.

Over half of households (54%) reported taking no water conservation steps within their homes. However, the majority (84%) of households with gardens attempted to conserve water.

Of all households with gardens, 68% conserved water by watering during the cooler times of the day. Mulch was used by 53%, while 38% planted native shrubs and trees. Only 16% of households took no measures to conserve water in their gardens.

Consumption of goods

The consumption of goods in the home has increased over time, both in terms of the number of goods purchased by households and the variety of goods available. For example, household ownership of television sets has increased from 55% in 1961 to 99% in 1991. Also, household ownership of video cassette recorders has increased from 3% in 1981 to 80% in 1993 and household ownership of compact disc players increased from 4% in 1986 to 33% in 1993 (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Leisure at home, pp. 164-167).

The increasing consumption of many goods is linked to their increasing affordability (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Purchasing power, pp. 124-127). However, the life span of many products is also decreasing. The designs and manufacturing methods that make goods cheaper also often make them difficult, or not financially viable, to repair³. Many electronic products (e.g. computers) are quickly superseded by continual improvements in design. Other products, such as polystyrene cups, paper tissues, and disposable nappies, are designed to be disposable.

The increasing consumption and disposability of goods causes resource depletion and waste production. However, this is being partially offset with some products that are more biodegradable and recyclable and products that have less packaging.

Recycling

Recycling is an important method of reducing the consumption of natural resources and reducing pressure on land-fills. Most households engage in some form of recycling, and recycling activity has increased over time.

Conserving water in the garden, 1994

Conservation method	Households	
	'000	%
Plant natives	2 107.0	37.6
Mulch used on plants	2 964.8	52.9
Water early morning/late evening	3 818.3	68.1
Other	149.0	2.7
No water conservation steps	890.5	15.9
Total households(a)(b)	5 605.1	100.0

(a) Components do not add to total as households may have more than one water conservation method.

(b) Includes only households with gardens.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices* (Cat. no. 4602.0).

Items recycled by households

Item recycled	May 1992	March 1996
	%	%
Paper	54.7	74.5
Glass	55.3	73.4
Plastic	37.3	66.8
Old clothing/rags	63.3	66.6
Cans	44.1	62.1
Garden waste	47.3	50.8
Kitchen/food waste	35.6	44.9
All items recycled	n.a.	6.2
No recycling	15.3	9.4
Total households(a)	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total households	8 175.4	8 667.9

(a) Components do not add to total because a household may recycle more than one type of item.

Source: *Environmental Issues, Peoples Views and Practices, Australia* (Cat. no. 4602.0).

In 1996, only 9% of households did not engage in any recycling activity, compared to 15% in 1992.

In 1996, paper was the item most commonly recycled by households (75%), closely followed by glass (73%), plastic and old clothing/rags (67% each) and cans (62%). The high recycling rates for paper, glass, plastic and cans is related to the recycling strategies developed by local councils and other government waste management authorities. The high recycling rate for clothing reflects their redistribution within a household to other family members and the collection of clothing by charities.

Garden waste was recycled by 51% of households, and kitchen or food waste by 45%. The re-use of garden and food waste can provide a useful fertiliser and soil enhancer, as well as helping to reduce landfill volumes and collection costs.

Between 1992 and 1996, household recycling rates increased for all items surveyed. Plastic recycling made the largest gains, increasing by 79%. Recycling of cans increased by 41%, and paper and glass by 36% and 33%, respectively.

Many households are willing to engage in recycling activities if adequate recycling services and facilities are provided by local authorities. The main method used to collect the bulk of recycled material in Australia is collection services from dwellings, with 80% of households using this service for paper and cans, 82% for glass recycling, and 78% for plastic recycling.

Of those households who gave a reason for not recycling all the items surveyed, the main reasons were a lack of recyclable materials (51%), no services or facilities being available (23%) and lack of interest by the household (14%).

Disposal of hazardous waste

In 1996, while 91% of households recycled some form of non-hazardous waste, only 31% knew of services that were available specifically to dispose of hazardous waste. However, about 47% of households disposed of some form of hazardous waste. Examples of hazardous waste are items such as garden chemicals, paint products, batteries, motor oils, and pharmaceuticals. Households in the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory recorded the highest level of awareness (with 43% and 42% respectively), while Victoria, Queensland and New South Wales were marginally below the Australian average.

In 1996, the principal method used by households to dispose of hazardous waste was via the usual garbage collection from the dwelling (62%). This was followed by waste materials being taken to a business or shop for disposal (25%). The least reported method of disposal for the items surveyed was to bury them (2%).

1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1996, *Australians and the Environment*, Cat. no. 4601.0, ABS, Canberra.

2 Australian Urban and Regional Development Review (AURDR) 1995, *Green Cities*, Strategy Paper No. 3, AURDR, Canberra.

3 Consumers Union of U.S. '1996 Buying Guide', *Consumer Reports*, Vol. 60, No. 13, 1995.

Crime and justice

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CRIME AND JUSTICE

The criminal justice system 161

In addition to those services provided by the Federal government, each State and Territory has a constitutional responsibility to administer the criminal justice system in Australia: police services, courts and correctional services.

CRIME LEVELS

Reported crimes 167

Police statistics indicate that, on a per capita basis, violent crimes tend to be more prevalent in the Northern Territory while Western Australia had the highest crime rates for property-related offences.

VIOLENT CRIME

Murder and manslaughter 171

In 1995, there were 321 cases of murder in Australia, an average of about one a day, and the chance of being a victim of murder was 18 in one million.

Victims of assault 175

There were over 101,000 cases of criminal assault recorded by police in Australia in 1995. Victims were more often young, and more likely to be male.

Violence against women 179

A national survey of Australian women conducted in 1996 found that almost half a million women (7%) had experienced an incident of violence in the 12 month period preceding the survey.

CORRECTIVE SERVICES

Prisoners in Australia 184

There were 16,800 prisoners in Australian prisons in June 1996, a rate of about 120 for every 100,000 adults in the population. Nearly all prisoners (95%) were men.

The criminal justice system

CRIME AND JUSTICE

In addition to those services provided by the Federal government, each State and Territory has a constitutional responsibility to administer the criminal justice system in Australia: police services, courts and correctional services.

All societies develop systems of maintaining order, often through legislation and common law. Australia inherited its criminal justice system from England at the time of colonisation. From that time, Australian judges have interpreted, applied and developed these laws, and Australian parliaments have also added to them through legislation¹.

While similar in character, each State and Territory has its own criminal justice system. As a consequence, laws, penalties and corrections for offenders, and arrangements for administering justice differ across State/Territory boundaries. Attempts at improving the criminal justice system in Australia have often focused on obtaining greater consistency between the State systems.

Cases progress through the criminal justice system in three stages: the investigative component (State police, federal police, National Crime Authority); the adjudicative component (courts); and the penal or correctional component (prisons and other correctional systems).

The investigators

In Australia there are nine police services, comprising the Australian Federal Police and services in each State and Territory. The National Crime Authority also undertakes

The Australian criminal justice system

The *criminal justice system* is a system of laws and rulings which protect community members and their property². It determines which events causing injury or offence to community members, are criminal. Criminal offenders may be punished through the law by fines, imprisonment and/or community service.

Commonwealth and State responsibilities

Australia has nine legal systems, comprising eight State or Territory systems and one federal system. Most of the administration of courts, the legal profession and legislation occurs in the States and Territories³.

Under the Australian Constitution, the Commonwealth of Australia is empowered to make laws on certain matters specified in the Constitution, for example, trade and commerce, taxation, defence and external affairs. The States and Territories have independent legislative power for all matters that are not specifically invested in the Commonwealth. Of all the criminal laws of Australia, it is the State and Territory laws that primarily govern the day-to-day lives of most Australians.

Police

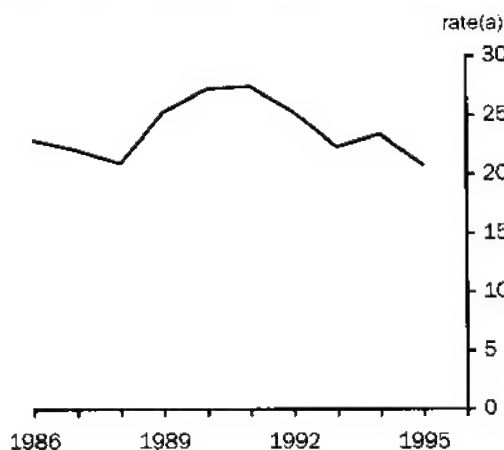
Police officers are personnel who are authorised to exercise the full statutory powers of a police officer. They may be uniformed or plain clothes officers.

Non-commissioned police officers are all police with the rank of station sergeant or below and plain clothes police (detectives). They enforce the law and maintain public order by discouraging offences, investigating offences and dealing with offenders.

criminal investigations, particularly in the area of organised crime.

In 1995, 37,500 people, 14% of whom were women, were employed as non-commissioned police officers in Australia. The number of non-commissioned police for every 10,000 persons in Australia increased from 23 in 1986 to a peak of 27 in 1990 and 1991. However since then it has dropped to 21 per 10,000 persons in 1995.

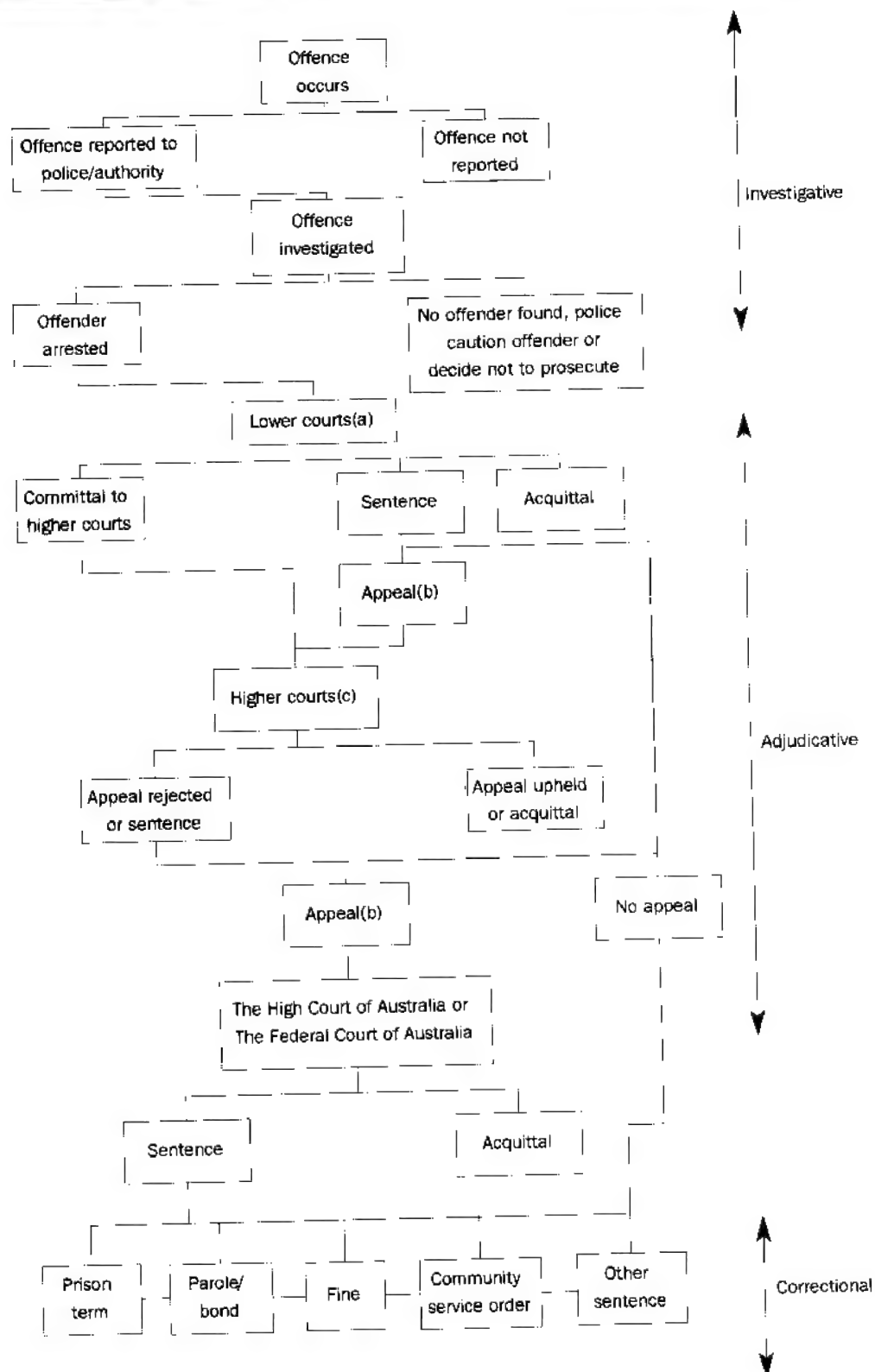
Non-commissioned police officers



(a) Number of officers per 10,000 of the population.

Source: Labour Force Survey (unpublished data).

Justice system in Australia



(a) Lower courts include courts such as Local Courts, Petty Courts, Magistrates' Courts, Children's Courts.

(b) Appeals may be against the judgement (guilty or non-guilty) or against the sentence received. Both the defence and the prosecution may initiate appeals.

(c) Higher courts include courts such as District Courts, County Courts, Supreme Courts, Courts of Criminal Appeal.

Police

The principal duties of police are the prevention and detection of crime, the protection of life and property, and the enforcement of law to maintain peace and good order. Police officers may perform a variety of additional duties in the service of their State authority. Although police services are under the control of the respective State governments and the Northern Territory Government, their members perform certain functions for the Commonwealth Government. The Australian Capital Territory police service is currently administered by the Australian Federal Police.

In 1995 New South Wales had the largest police service overall (13,000). However this only represented 21 police for every 10,000 persons in that State. In comparison, there were 43 police for every 10,000 persons in the Northern Territory. Queensland had the smallest police service relative to the population with 19 per 10,000 persons.

The Australian Federal Police (AFP) was formed to investigate offences against federal law, both in Australia and overseas. At 30 June 1995 the AFP had 2,963 permanent staff (2,291 police officers and 672 other staff). 17% of the police officers were women.

National Crime Authority

The National Crime Authority (NCA) was established by the Commonwealth Government in 1984 in response to the findings of several Royal Commissions into organised criminal activity in Australia. The NCA's purpose is to counteract organised criminal activity and reduce its impact on the community, working in cooperation and partnership with other agencies.

In 1995 the NCA employed 399 staff including 112 police seconded from other police forces. Of the 118 people charged by the NCA in that year, 96 were charged with drug offences.

The adjudicators

Australia's court system is a tiered system with the High Court of Australia having final jurisdiction. These are underpinned by State and Territory courts which have higher and lower courts for cases of varying seriousness.

The High Court of Australia is the final court of appeal from all State courts, the Federal Court and the Family Court of Australia. The High Court also hears federal offences.

State/Territory police strength at 30 June, 1995

State/Territory	Police officers no.	Police stations no.	Officers per 10,000 persons rate
NSW	13 070	473	21.4
Vic.	10 016	331	22.2
Qld	6 290	347	19.2
WA	4 227	160	24.4
SA	3 616	131	24.5
Tas.	1 072	77	22.7
NT	756	36	43.5
ACT	661	8	21.7
Aust.	39 708	1 563	22.0

Source: Industry Commission, *Report on Government Service Provision*, 1995.

The Federal Court of Australia was created in 1976 to reduce the load on the High Court. It consists of an Industrial Division and a General Division. The Federal Court has jurisdiction over the decisions of single judges of the High Court, and some decisions of the State and Territory Supreme Courts.

Australian State and Territory courts have original jurisdiction in all matters brought under State or Territory laws, and in some matters arising under federal laws. Most criminal matters, whether arising under Commonwealth, State or Territory law, are dealt with by State and Territory courts.

Each State and Territory court system operates independently. All States have Supreme Courts and some also have a Court of Criminal Appeal which is the highest court of appeal in a State. Supreme Courts hear cases of the most serious nature or appeals from lower courts. District or County Courts hear serious cases. In these higher courts a judge presides over the court to determine law, while a jury determines the guilt or innocence of a defendant. Local or Magistrates' Courts or Courts of Petty Session hear the majority of cases that come before courts. They have no jury and the magistrates decide the guilt or innocence of the accused. They also refer more serious cases to the higher courts. Children's Courts or Juvenile Courts hear cases where the defendant is under 18 years of age (or under 17 years in some jurisdictions).

In 1993-94 there were 782,000 criminal cases heard in the State and Territory courts. 96% of these were heard in a Magistrates' Court.

Rate of criminal court cases per 1,000 population, 1993-94

Criminal cases(a)	NSW	Vic.	Qld	WA	SA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate
Supreme Court	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.3
County/District Court	1.8	1.0	1.8	1.4	1.6	1.4
Magistrates(b) Court	38.3	24.7	47.9	64.1	75.6	42.1	79.1	23.0	42.4
Total court cases(c)	40.2	25.8	50.1	65.7	77.5	43.0	79.7	23.7	44.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total court cases(c)	242.4	115.5	158.0	110.8	113.7	20.3	13.6	7.1	781.5

(a) Excluding minor traffic offences.

(b) Also known as Local Courts or Courts of Petty Session.

(c) Total court cases may double count some matters that appear before two courts.

Source: Industry Commission, *Report on Government Service Provision*, 1995.

Relative to population size, the Northern Territory had the highest number of court cases (80 per 1,000 persons) of all the States and Territories. However both South Australia and Western Australia also had high rates: 78 and 66 cases respectively. The Australian Capital Territory and Victoria had the lowest rates with 24 and 26 cases per 1,000 persons respectively.

Legal representation

Access to legal representation is important for a fair justice system. Australia has a system of legal aid services which helps pay the legal costs involved in court appearances for those assessed as being least able to afford such costs. Legal aid policy and development is largely undertaken by the Office of Legal Aid and Family Services while the aid itself is delivered by independent Legal Aid Commissions, Aboriginal Legal Services and other community-based legal agencies. In the 1996 federal budget statement, the States and Territories were called on to pay for the costs of legal aid for all cases being tried under State and Territory law.

In 1993-94 there were 130,500 grants for legal aid, 68% of which were for criminal cases.

Juries

A jury may be called to try criminal cases depending on the type and seriousness of the crime in question. If a crime is indictable then the defendant has the right to a trial by jury in a higher court.

A jury consists of 12 people with no legal training and no previous connection to the

case. In most States and Territories, a jury decision on guilt or innocence must be unanimous. However in some, a majority decision involving at least 10 members is sufficient where a unanimous decision could not be achieved within a specified period of time (at least two hours).

Judges

Judges and magistrates control and arbitrate the functions of the courts. They make the crucial decisions concerning the evidence that can be admitted and in what form, thus deciding what information the jury will get, and often how they must use it².

The High Court of Australia has a Chief Justice and six other Justices. Only one woman has ever served as a Justice of the High Court. She was appointed in 1987 and is still serving. There are currently 40 judges of the Federal Court, of whom five are women.

Prior to 1977, judges in the High Court and the Federal Court were appointed for life. However, judges appointed since 1977 must retire at the age of 70. There are still two judges of the Federal Court with life appointments (i.e. were appointed prior to 1977 and have not yet voluntarily retired).

Corrective services

There are three main categories of correctional actions available to the courts when convicting offenders. The first category includes those that do not involve supervision or detention of the offender, such as fines and bonds. Options in the second category involve supervision in the community, usually for a specified period, or until some

Offences

Summary offences can be tried in a Magistrates' Court. The Magistrate decides the guilt or innocence of the defendant. These offences are usually of a less severe nature and carry lower penalties. Offences such as shoplifting or traffic violations are summary offences.

Indictable offences are triable by a higher court, and hence, by a jury. They are usually of a more serious nature and carry heavier penalties. Offences such as murder, rape and armed robbery are usually indictable offences. For some indictable offences, a defendant may choose to waive the right to be tried in the higher courts by a jury.

educational or community reparative target is achieved. These include probation or community service orders. The third category includes options involving detention, either in prisons or other institutions, or at home. In recent years it has become common for courts to impose sentences combining options from several different categories.

Prisons

All States and the Northern Territory operate prisons and other correctional services (see *Australian Social Trends 1997, Prisoners in Australia*, pp. 184–188).

Separate provisions exist in each State and Territory for dealing with juvenile offenders. The Commonwealth Government does not operate any prisons or other correctional services, and persons convicted of offences under federal laws are held in State correctional agencies. There were 88 prisons

Lawyers

Barristers are lawyers who can represent others in any court.

Solicitors are lawyers who can advise clients and instruct barristers but cannot represent clients except in some lower courts.

operating in Australia in 1994. Of those, 84 had facilities for men and 25 had facilities for women.

In 1994, 42% of prisoners held in Australia had a minimum security classification, a further 26% had medium security, 16% held a maximum classification and 16% were unclassified.

Prison occupancy levels in each State are calculated by dividing the actual number of prisoners by the number of people the prisons were designed to hold. This measure can be used to gauge the extent of overcrowding in Australian prisons. Overcrowding occurs when the level of occupancy exceeds 100. Of the States for which data is available, Queensland and the Northern Territory had overcrowded prison systems and New South Wales and Western Australia were both close to capacity, in 1995.

Queensland had the highest ratio of deaths in custody to prisoners, although New South Wales had the highest total number of deaths in custody. Inquiries into Aboriginal deaths in custody continue to find that Indigenous people in prison die at a higher rate than non-Indigenous people¹.

	Units	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	ACT(b)	NT
Prisoners per uniformed officer	no.	2.4(c)	1.8	n.a.	n.a.	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.8
Costs per prisoner per day	\$	33	122	116	104	n.a.	136	370	143
Level of occupancy(d)	rate	99(c)	n.a.	115(c)	n.a.	98	69	n.a.	109
Deaths in custody	no.	21	7	12	7	6	0	0	1
Deaths per 1,000 prisoners	rate	3.3	2.8	4.5	n.a.	2.8	—		2.2
Daily average number of prisoners	no.	6 279	2 460	2 675	n.a.	2 119	257	18	465
Prisons(e)	no.	30	15	11	9	14	4	1	4

(a) Excludes private prisons.

(b) ACT has a remand centre only. The information provided refers only to remandees.

(c) At 30 June 1995.

(d) Number of prisoners per 100 people which the prisons were designed to hold.

(e) According to the Prison Census June 1994.

Source: Northern Territory Government, *Department of Corrective Services 1994–95 Annual report*; ABS, *Prisoners in Australia*, 1994.

There were 8,700 prison officers in Australia in 1995, a drop from 10,000 in 1990. In 1995 the ratio of prisoners per officer ranged from 1.4 in Tasmania to 2.4 in New South Wales. The number of prisoners per officer does not reflect the actual number of prisoners for whom each officer is responsible. Factors such as prisoners being guarded 24 hours a day (requiring officers to work in shifts) and officers doing non-custodial work such as administration would account for the low ratios.

- 1 Redfern Legal Centre 1995, *The Law Handbook (NSW)*, 5th edition, Redfern Legal Centre Publishing, Redfern.
- 2 Sallmann, P. and Willis, J. 1984, *Criminal Justice in Australia*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne.
- 3 Attorney-General's Department (AGD) 1995, *The Justice Statement*, AGD, Canberra.
- 4 Office of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Justice Commissioner 1996, *Indigenous Deaths in Custody 1989-1996*, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, Canberra.

Reported crimes

CRIME LEVELS

Police statistics indicate that, on a per capita basis, violent crimes tend to be more prevalent in the Northern Territory while Western Australia had the highest crime rates for property-related offences.

Every day across Australia police record details of thousands of crimes. Offences may have been reported by a victim, witness or other person, or they may have been detected by the police. While many more crimes go unreported, or undetected, the information collected by police provides a valuable source of information for measuring the level of crime in Australia.

Crime rates by type of offence

National police statistics indicate that offences involving property (i.e. unlawful entry and burglaries, motor vehicle theft and other thefts) are far more numerous than offences involving direct conflicts between individuals (i.e. assaults, robberies, homicides, and kidnapping and abduction).

In 1995, property offences represented 88% of the 1.1 million crimes for which national crime statistics have been compiled. Offences

National crime statistics

National crime statistics relate to crimes that have become known to the police and for which details have been recorded in official crime reports. While individual police services have produced various forms of statistical reports from these sources, the ABS first published nationally comparable statistics in 1993.

Because of the diverse capacities of the statistical information systems used by State and Territory police services, a staged approach has been adopted in the production of national crime statistics. At this stage national data is not available for many victimless crimes such as those relating to drug offences and offences against public order. Efforts to compile such statistics, using uniform definitions and counting rules, are currently under way.

National crime statistics measure the number of victims (or premises, in the case of burglaries and related crimes) classified by offence categories. They do not attempt to measure the number of offenders or the number of offences. However, it is possible for a victim to be counted more than once. This can occur where the victim has been the subject of multiple offences during the one incident (such as kidnapping, rape and murder), in which case the victim would be counted for each offence; or of more than one incident during the year. For further details see *National Crime Statistics* (Cat. no. 4510.0).

Nationally uniform police statistics are compiled using the *ABS Australian National Classification of Offences* (Cat. no. 1234.0), and standard counting rules. Using these rules, responsibility for deciding how a crime will be recorded remains with individual police officers. While the ABS has made every effort to ensure that police statistics from the various jurisdictions are uniform and comparable, it is inevitable that differences will remain.

involving the highest crime rates were unlawful entry with intent involving the taking of property (1,678 per 100,000), motor vehicle theft (703 per 100,000) and other thefts (2,713 per 100,000).

Of personal crimes, assaults were the most common, followed by robberies and sexual assaults. The crime rate for assault (560 per 100,000) was over six times higher than that for robbery (91 per 100,000) and almost eight times higher than that for sexual assault (71 per 100,000). Other crimes for which national statistics were available, such as homicides

Victims		
Offence	Victims no.	Victims rate(a)
Murder	321	1.8
Attempted murder	301	1.7
Manslaughter	30	0.2
Driving causing death	314	1.7
Assault	101 149	560
Sexual assault	12 809	71
Kidnapping/abduction	469	2.6
Robbery(b)	16 466	91
Armed	6 631	37
Unarmed	9 835	54
Blackmail/extortion(b)	152	0.8
Unlawful entry with intent(c)	384 897	2 132
Involving the taking of property	302 914	1 678
Other	81 983	454
Motor vehicle theft(d)	126 919	703
Other theft(b)	489 785	2 713

(a) Victims per 100 000 people.

(b) Victims can include organisations as well as individuals.

(c) Victims are the places/premises entered.

(d) Motor vehicles stolen.

Source: *National Crime Statistics* (Cat. no. 4510.0).

Victims of crime

Offence	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	ACT	Total(b)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Personal crime							
Robbery	52.2	56.7	55.0	54.0	60.5	62.5	54.9
Assault	30.4	33.2	36.5	38.5	40.9	31.6	34.2
Sexual assault(c)	—	**	**	25.6*	—	—	10.8
Property crime							
Break and enter	73.5	76.5	77.6	81.5	80.3	87.8	76.9
Attempted break and enter	31.3	37.4	28.6	32.7	31.2	38.1	31.7
Motor vehicle theft	91.4	96.5	94.1	96.8	93.7*	100.0*	92.7

(a) Refers to persons for personal crimes and households for property crimes.

(b) The Northern Territory and Tasmania did not conduct a Crime and Safety Survey in 1995.

(c) Sexual assault questions were only asked of women aged 18 years and over.

Source: *Crime and Safety, NSW and ACT* (Cat. no. 4509.1); *Crime and Safety, Victoria* (Cat. no. 4509.2); *Crime and Safety, Queensland* (Cat. no. 4509.3); *Crime and Safety, South Australia* (Cat. no. 4509.4); *Crime and Safety, Western Australia* (Cat. no. 4509.5); and *Year Book Australia 1997* (Cat. no. 1301.0).

and kidnapping and abduction, were in comparison quite rare. Overall, police recorded 321 murders and 301 attempted murders in Australia in 1995, and 469 cases of kidnapping and abduction.

Reporting crimes to the police

Many crimes do not get reported to the police. For this reason, the measurement of crime rates from police statistics should be treated with caution. While the number of crimes not reported is difficult to measure, household based Crime and Safety Surveys, conducted in most States during 1995, show that level of reporting to the police varied widely according to the nature of the crime.

Taking the results (from each State) together, the surveys found that the rates of reporting for property crimes were high (93% for motor vehicle theft and 77% for break and enter offences). This may be related to the need to report crimes for insurance purposes. In contrast, reporting rates among victims of personal crime tended to be much lower. Only 34% of assault victims and 11% of sexual assault victims said they reported the last incident to the police.

The reasons for not reporting personal crimes vary according to the type of offence and are often complex. They can depend on the victim's perception of the seriousness of the incident, or perceptions that the police would or could not do anything. Fear of the perpetrator may also affect the decision whether to report a crime (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Victims of assault,

pp. 175–178, and Violence against women, pp. 179–183).

On the whole, differences in reporting rates for a given offence across State and Territory jurisdictions tend to be minor. However, the effect of more substantial differences for a particular offence, where they occur, would be important in explaining different crime rates observed from police statistics. For example, if the proportion of assaults reported to the police in New South Wales was the same as that measured in Western Australia (that is, 41% instead of 30%), the assault rate in New South Wales (619 per 100,000 in 1995) may have risen by 200 or so extra cases per 100,000 population.

State/Territory crime rates

National crime statistics show that crime rates varied considerably between Australia's States and Territories, and that no single State had the highest crime rate for all offence categories. New South Wales had by far the highest crime rate for robbery offences, but murder and assault were more prevalent in the Northern Territory while property crimes were more prevalent in Western Australia. In contrast, crime rates in Victoria, Queensland, Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory tended to be below national rates for most offence categories.

It is possible to speculate about some reasons for these differences. For example, large cities tend to have higher crime rates, and some States have a large proportion of their population concentrated in large cities. States also differ in their demographic, ethnic and

Victims of selected offences	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate
Personal crime									
Murder	1.7	1.4	1.8	1.5	2.5	1.3	12.7	0.3	1.8
Assault	619	351	537	913	635	430	1 167	457	560
Sexual assault	66	62	75	92	103	34	73	25	71
Armed robbery(b)	62	17	27	25	39	13	10	26	37
Unarmed robbery(b)	94	21	33	74	42	14	33	27	54
Property crime									
Unlawful entry with intent(c)	2 178	1 575	2 061	2 080	3 524	2 400	3 039	1 602	2 132
Motor vehicle theft	762	650	561	677	1 032	476	588	512	703
Other theft(b)	2 280	2 481	2 584	3 452	4 337	2 334	3 826	3 394	2 713

(a) Victims per 100,000 people.

(b) Victims can include organisations as well as individuals.

(c) Victims are the places/premises entered.

Source: *National Crime Statistics* (Cat. no. 4510.0).

socio-economic profiles. However, other factors such as the level of policing activity and the way police record crimes may also be important¹, as well as the differences in the proportions of victims who report the crime to the police.

Property crimes

Western Australia recorded the highest crime rates for all property-related crimes. In 1995 the reported rate for unlawful entry with intent in Western Australia was 3,524 per 100,000 population, which was 65% above the national rate (2,132 per 100,000). Western Australia also recorded the highest rates of other thefts and motor vehicle thefts, with rates 60% and 47% above the national rate respectively.

The Northern Territory recorded the second-highest levels of unlawful entry with intent (3,039 per 100,000) and of other theft (3,826). However, the second-highest rate of motor vehicle theft was in New South Wales (762 per 100,000).

In contrast, States with the lowest crime rates for property-related crimes were: for unlawful entry with intent, Victoria and the Australian Capital Territory; for motor vehicle theft, Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory; and for other theft, New South Wales and Tasmania.

Offences

An offence (crime) is an act considered prima facie to be in breach of the criminal law. As laws vary considerably between States and Territories, grouping of offences to provide national statistics has necessarily involved the use of broad definitions. For further details see *National Crime Statistics* (Cat. no. 4510.0).

Property crimes

Unlawful entry with intent involves entry of a dwelling or other premises in order to commit an offence. An offence includes theft, property damage as well as any offence against a person.

Other theft includes offences involving the taking of another person's property: but without force, or threat of force, and without having gained unlawful entry to any structure.

Robbery

Robbery is the unlawful taking of property, without consent, under confrontational circumstances from the immediate possession, control, custody or care of a person accompanied by force or threat of force or violence and/or by placing the victim in fear.

The distinction between some forms of unarmed robbery and theft can be a fine one. It is possible that some State police services record some types of theft as robberies (and vice versa). This means that comparisons between States of unarmed robbery crime rates and theft crime rates may be affected.

Personal crimes

Assault was by far the most commonly reported personal crime in all States and Territories. In 1995, the highest rate of assault was recorded in the Northern Territory (1,167 per 100,000); this was twice the national rate (560 per 100,000). As most assaults occur among young people (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Victims of assault, pp. 175–178), the high prevalence rate in the Northern Territory is related to its young age profile. The second-highest assault rate was recorded by South Australia (913 per 100,000), followed by Western Australia (635 per 100,000). Victoria (351) recorded the lowest assault rate per 100,000 population.

Murder rates can fluctuate greatly from year to year because of the small numbers involved. Even so, the Northern Territory has also recorded the highest murder rates in recent years, in accord with its high assault rates. In 1994 the murder rate was 6 per 100,000 and 13 in 1995. The Australian Capital Territory had the lowest murder rates, with 1 murder per 100,000 persons in 1994 and less than that in 1995 (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Murder and manslaughter, pp. 171–174).

Police statistics suggest that robbery rates (both armed and unarmed) were markedly higher in New South Wales in 1995 than in other jurisdictions. The armed robbery rate (62 per 100,000) was 70% higher than the national rate and the unarmed robbery rate was 73% higher. However, New South Wales

robbery rates cannot be readily compared with those in other States because the system used to record robbery offences by New South Wales police services differs from those used by other police services. The offence-recording system used in New South Wales since 1994, includes trauma victims of robbery together with victims suffering financial loss.

South Australia had the second-highest overall (armed and unarmed) robbery rate (99 per 100,000), but a much greater proportion of the robberies involved unarmed offences. A further note of caution is required because some of the differences in unarmed robbery rates between States and Territories may arise from differing practices in classifying incidents of theft and unarmed robbery.

The highest rates of sexual assault (based on cases reported to the police) were recorded in Western Australia (103 per 100,000) and South Australia (92 per 100,000). The lowest sexual assault rates, on the other hand, were recorded in the Australian Capital Territory (25 per 100,000) and Tasmania (34 per 100,000). The differences observed between States and Territories should be interpreted with caution as differences in reporting rates might be responsible for the variations.



1 Indermaur, D. 1995, *Violent Property Crime*, The Federation Press, Sydney.

Murder and manslaughter

VIOLENT CRIME

In 1995, there were 321 cases of murder in Australia, an average of about one a day.

The incidence of violent crime in the community is an issue of continuing social concern. This is particularly so in cases of murder and manslaughter, which typically receive a great deal of public attention. Not only does this attention focus on the circumstances of the events and the characteristics of the perpetrators and their victims, but also on possible underlying factors that may have given rise to those events.

In recent years, community attention has turned to those killings caused by firearms. A firearm was used in one in five cases of murder or manslaughter in 1995. In the wake of the Port Arthur massacre of 35 people by a lone gunman in April 1996, legislation has been put in place to control the ownership and use of certain classes of firearms.

Although they may figure highly in the public perception of crime, murders and manslaughters made up just 0.3% of recorded violent crime in 1995, and only 0.3% of all deaths. There were 321 police-recorded cases of murder in Australia in 1995, or about one a day, on average. This was an increase from 288 in 1994 and 300 in 1993. Manslaughter remained fairly constant over the three-year period, with 30 recorded cases in 1995, 32 in 1994 and 37 in 1993.

There were a further 301 cases of attempted murder in 1995, down from 334 in 1994 and 369 in 1993. These figures should be treated with caution, however, as it is difficult in

Murder and manslaughter

Murder and manslaughter are subsets of homicide, as defined by ABS National Crime Statistics. Other homicide crimes are driving causing death and attempted murder. Figures for attempted murder over time and between jurisdictions are misleading, because of differences in the definition of attempted murder.

Police statistics used in this review were compiled from data made available to the ABS by the eight police forces in Australia.

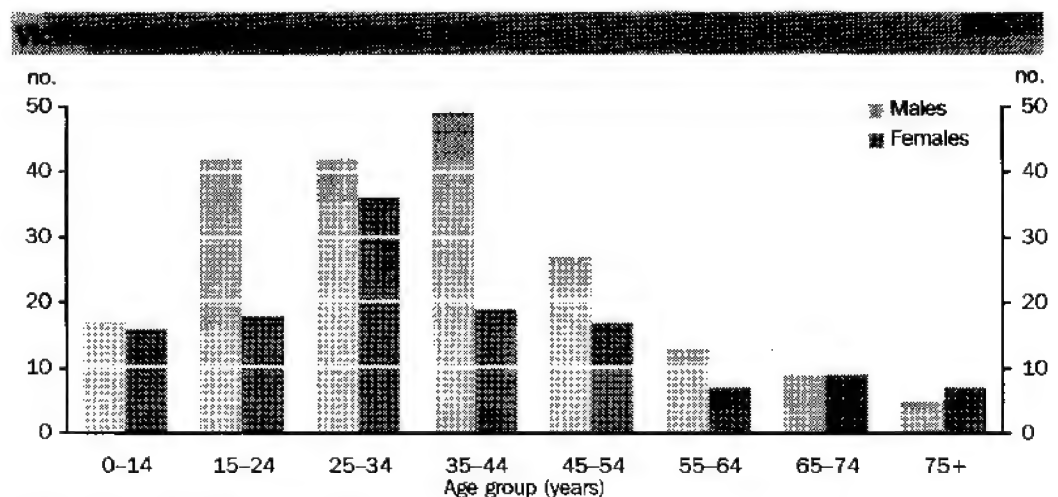
Murder is the wilful killing of another person, either intentionally or with reckless indifference to life.

Manslaughter is the unlawful killing of a person caused without intent to kill, usually as a result of a careless, reckless or negligent act, or intentionally, but due to extreme provocation, or when in a state of mind that impairs the capacity to understand or control one's actions. For this review, deaths resulting from driving causing death are not regarded as manslaughter.

Murder/manslaughter deaths are available from Cause of Death statistics. The relevant International Classification of Diseases code (ICD-9) is *Homicide and injury purposely inflicted by other persons*.

some cases to distinguish between attempted murder and other crimes, such as assault.

The chance of being a victim of murder in 1995 in Australia was 18 in a million. Even



Source: Causes of Death (unpublished data).

when the 30 manslaughter victims in 1995 were included, the chance increased to only 20 in a million.

As would be expected, the greatest number of murder/manslaughter deaths recorded by police in 1995 occurred in the most populous States: New South Wales (111), Queensland (68) and Victoria (67). However, the highest rates, when averaged over the three years from 1993 to 1995, were found in the Northern Territory (97 per million people) and Western Australia (27 per million).

Trends

The numbers and rates of recorded murder and manslaughter deaths fluctuate considerably from year to year, partly because they are rare events, and partly because they can be influenced by unusual occurrences such as multiple killings. (The peaks in the number of deaths in recent years are not, however, totally accounted for by multiple murders.) Because of these fluctuations, annual changes have little meaning.

To overcome problems caused by such wide variations, trends can be more readily viewed by presenting each yearly figure as an average over the three-year period (using the previous and the following year in each case).

Using these smoothed figures, it is apparent that murder/manslaughter death rates have tended to rise, from a low of around 11 per million during the World War II years to a peak of 22 per million in 1989. Since then, it has fallen slightly to 19 per million in 1994.

International comparisons



Australia's murder/manslaughter death rate in 1995 was comparable with those observed in Canada and New Zealand. The United States of America had a murder/manslaughter rate four times higher than Australia, while Germany, and England and Wales had lower rates.

The proportion of murders/manslaughters through the use of firearms in Australia was less than half that of the United States of America, but two to three times that of England and Wales.

Murder/manslaughter rates(a), 1995

Selected countries	Murder/manslaughter rate(a)
USA(b)	8.2
Canada	2.0
Australia	2.0
New Zealand	1.8
England and Wales	1.4
Germany	1.5

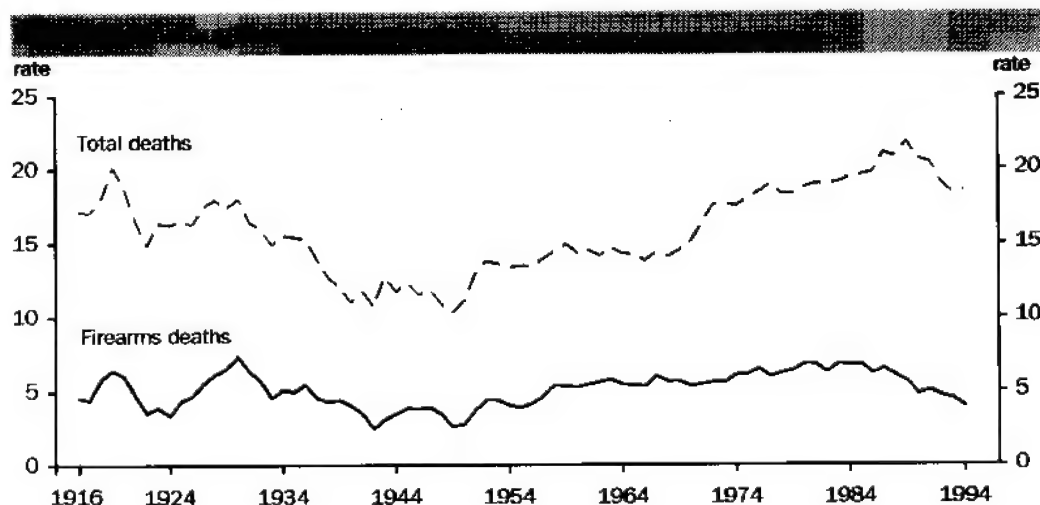
(a) Rate per 100,000 of the population.

(b) The USA figure only includes murder and non-negligent manslaughter.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology (unpublished data).

Profile of victims

Victims of murder/manslaughter were more often male (three out of five in 1995) than female, and most were aged in their early to mid adult years. In particular, victims were more likely to be never married men aged

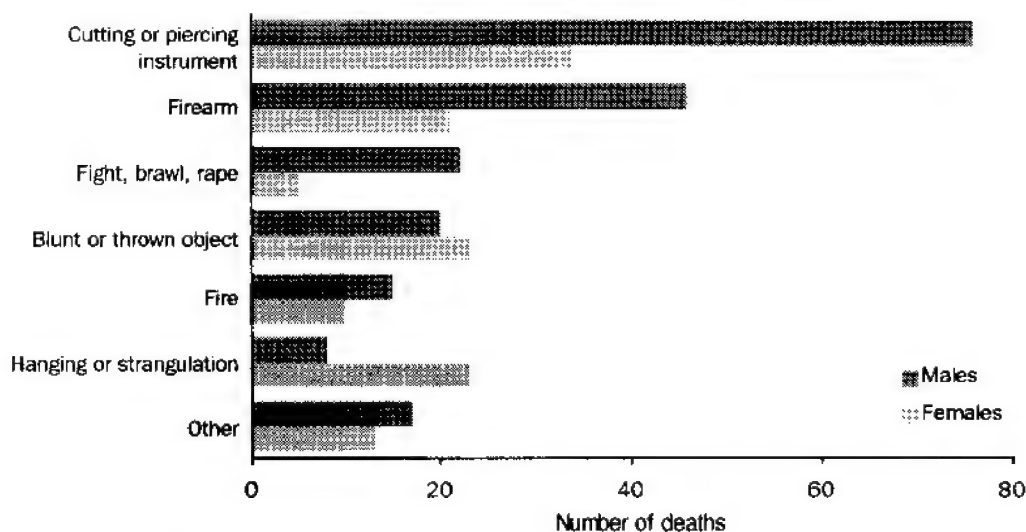


(a) Rates per one million people. Rates for each year are given as the average over the three-year period using the two adjacent years.

(b) Figures for murder/manslaughter deaths for Indigenous people were not recorded prior to 1967.

Source: Causes of Death (unpublished data).

Manner of murder/manslaughter, 1995



Source: Causes of Death (unpublished data).

under 45 years. This group made up half of all male victims and almost one third of all victims.

Victim/offender relationship

Contrary to the stereotypical murder committed by a stranger in a park or dark alley, most victims know their murderers and most deaths occur in private homes.

Based on available police recorded data, about three out of five murderers were known to their victims and over half (55%) of these were family members. Information from the Australian Institute of Criminology for the period 1989–93 showed that, for those murder and manslaughter offenders whose sex was recorded, about 90% were male.¹

The most common site for committing a murder was a residential location (66%), followed by open space (8%) and street/footpath (7%).

Manner of death

In 1995, most murders/manslaughters were committed using a knife or similar instrument (33%), a firearm (20%) or a blunt or thrown object (13%).

The use of a knife or similar weapon was the most common method used to kill both men (37%) and women (26%), followed by a firearm (23%) for men and hanging or strangulation, or a blunt or thrown object

(each 18%) for women. A further 16% of women were murdered with a firearm.

Deaths due to firearms

Despite some large annual fluctuations, murders and manslaughters involving the use of firearms have generally declined in significance over the last decade. Using three-year averages because of the small numbers involved, the rate of firearm killings per million people fell from 6.8 in 1985 to 4.0 in 1994. The decline over the last decade follows a slow but steady increase in

Multiple killings(a) by firearm

Year	Incidents no.	Deaths no.
1987	6	32
1988	1	3
1989	3	7
1990	4	11
1991	2	10
1992	5	20
1993	1	3
1994	0	0
1995	0	0
1996(b)	2	42
Total	24	128

(a) Excludes any related suicides.

(b) Up to and including 28 April.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, 1996, *Violent Deaths and Firearms in Australia: Data and Trends*.

murder/manslaughter death rates attributed to firearms for most of the post-war period. In proportionate terms, murder and manslaughter deaths by firearms have generally decreased from 32% of all murder/manslaughters in 1985 to 20% in 1995.

A number of homicide incidents in Australia have involved multiple killings¹. A multiple killing is defined as any incident where two or more people are murdered.

There have been 24 recorded multiple killings from the use of firearms between 1987 and April 1996, resulting in a total of 128 deaths. However, there is no evidence from the annual data to support any belief that either the frequency or the number of deaths from such incidences has been on the increase over the last decade.



1 Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC) 1996, *Violent Deaths and Firearms in Australia: Data and Trends*, AIC, Canberra.

Victims of assault

VIOLENT CRIME

There were over 101,000 cases of criminal assault recorded by police in Australia in 1995. Victims were more often young, and more likely to be male.

Assault is the most common of violent crimes. In 1995, Australian police services recorded 101,000 cases of assault: an average of 277 cases per day, compared to 45 cases (per day) of robbery and 35 cases of sexual assault¹. Many cases of assault are not reported to the police. Notwithstanding possible effects of differences in definition (see box), the 1993 National Crime and Safety Survey found that 334,000 people aged 15 years and over had been victims of assault, about three times the number recorded by the police in that year.

Many people are fearful of violent crimes, and tend to overestimate their risk of being a victim perhaps, in part, because of the amount of media attention given to incidents of violence. A 1995 study undertaken by the New South Wales Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research found that 14% of the population regarded their risk of being a victim of assault as greater than 30%, and that women and older people were the most fearful².

As well as providing the opportunity to assess whether these levels of fear are realistic, information about the numbers and characteristics of assault victims provide important indicators of the level and pattern of violence in the community.

Assault

As defined by the recently established ABS National Crime Statistics collection, based on police statistics, *assault* is the direct infliction of force, injury or violence upon a person. It includes attempts or threats, providing they are in the form of face-to-face direct confrontation and there is reason to believe that the attempt or threat can be immediately enacted.

In 1983 survey data was collected by means of personal interview. However, surveys conducted throughout the 1990s collected the information using a self-enumeration questionnaire addressed to all members of the household aged 15 years and over. Information was collected on the number of assaults on each respondent in the last 12 months, but details were obtained only for the most recent assault.

Both the above exclude sexual assault, which is collected differently.

Responses obtained in the ABS Crime and Safety Surveys are based on the respondents' perceptions that they have been the victim of an offence. Data on crimes not reported to police are also collected. The wording of the questions asked of respondents may not correspond with police or legal definitions. Other differences from police statistics are due to a number of factors, including:

- police statistics count all offences recorded in the year; while crime victims surveys count the number of victims (though adjustments can be made for multiple victimisations);
- dates of reporting may differ between the sources due to police recording practices and respondent memory problems; and
- police may not record an event reported, for various reasons.

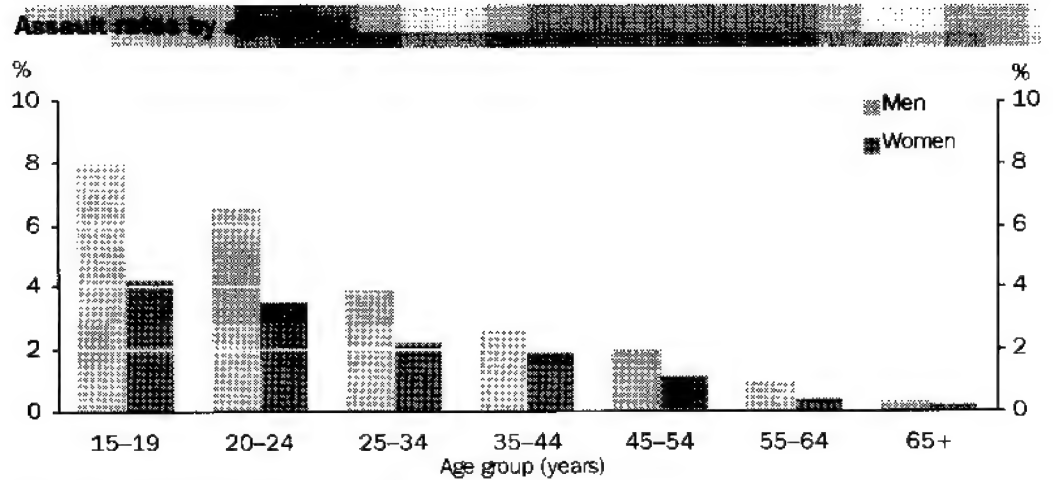
Assault rates in New South Wales



Source: Crime and Safety, New South Wales and Australian Capital Territory, April 1995; Crime and Safety, New South Wales, April 1996 (Cat. no. 4509.1).

Levels and trends

The last National Crime and Safety Survey conducted in 1993 found that 2.5% of all persons aged 15 years and over had experienced an assault in the 12 months prior to the survey. This was lower than the rate (3.4%) recorded in 1983. This decrease cannot be taken at face value, however, as changes in survey methods may have accounted for some of the change. Annual crime victims surveys conducted in New South Wales between 1990 and 1996 show that assault rates have fluctuated between 2.1% and 2.8% over the period. Assault rates recorded in 1996 were, nevertheless, higher



Source: National Crime and Safety Survey (unpublished data).

than those recorded at the beginning of the decade.

Groups at risk

Of all assault victims identified in the 1993 survey, almost two thirds (64%) were men and almost seven in ten (69%) were aged between 15 and 34. Only a small proportion of victims (4%) were aged 55 and over.

Youths aged 15-19 were the group most at risk. 8% of men and 4% of women in this age group had experienced an assault in the previous 12 months. The likelihood of being a victim decreased with age and, across all age groups, was lower for women than men. Nevertheless, the likelihood of women aged

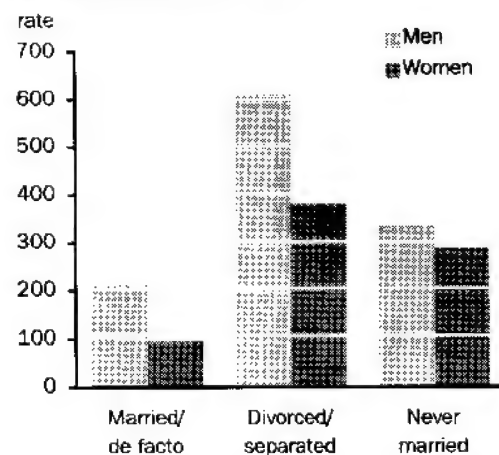
15-19 being assaulted was higher than for men aged 25-34.

Just as there were large differences in assault rates among people in different age groups, there were also differences between individuals depending on their marital status and their labour force status.

Married and employed people were less likely to be victims of assault than those who had never married or those who were unemployed. Even after standardising for age effects, major differences between marital status groups and labour force status groups are apparent.

Among people aged 20 years and over, married men and women had the lowest

Age-standardised assault rates(a) by marital status(b), 1993



(a) Rate per 10,000 of the population.

(b) Refers to people aged 20 years and over.

Source: National Crime and Safety Survey (unpublished data).

Age-standardised assault rates(a) by labour force status(b), 1993



(a) Rate per 10,000 of the population.

(b) Refers to people aged 15-64 years.

Source: National Crime and Safety Survey (unpublished data).

age-standardised assault rates of all marital status groups. However, it should be noted that incidents of domestic violence may have been under-reported in the survey because the questionnaire (a mail-back, self-completion form) could not necessarily be answered without the offender being aware of the responses.

In comparison, separated and divorced people of either sex were more vulnerable to assault than their married or never married counterparts. Violent disputes between ex-partners following separation may account for the high rates among separated and divorced people³. However, other lifestyle factors are likely to be important in explaining why separated and divorced men had the highest rates of assault.

Unemployed people of either sex were more likely to be victims of assault than either employed people or those not in the labour force. The age-standardised rate for unemployed males was 26% higher than those for men not in the labour force and 61% higher than those for men with work. The age-standardised rate for unemployed women was 58% higher than those for employed women, but there was little difference between women with jobs and those who were not in the labour force.

Repeat victimisation

Many cases of assault appear to be isolated incidents. In 1993, 57% of assault victims had experienced only one assault in the previous 12 months. Even so, a large proportion of assault victims had been assaulted on more than one occasion: 18% twice; a further 16% three or four times; and another 9% five or more times over the previous 12 months.

About the same proportions of men and women reported being the victim of only one assault. However, while about twice as many men as women reported being the victim of more than one assault, women were more likely to have been assaulted on three or more occasions. Similarly, separated and divorced victims were more likely than other marital status categories to be the victims of three or more assaults.

Familiarity with offenders and location of incident

Women (68%) were more likely than men (47%) to know their attacker or some of their attackers. Those in a partnership, and those who had been separated or divorced, were

Repeat victimisation, 1993

Characteristics of victims	Number of incidents in the previous 12 months		
	One	Two	Three or more
	%	%	%
Men	56.4	20.6	23.0
Women	57.5	12.9	29.6
Marital status			
Married/de facto	58.9	16.8	24.3
Separated/divorced	46.3	17.0	36.7
Never married	57.9	18.4	23.7
All victims(a)	56.8	17.8	25.4
	'000	'000	'000
All victims(a)	189.9	59.5	84.8

(a) Includes widowed people.

Source: National Crime and Safety Survey (unpublished data).

more likely than those who had never been married, to have known the perpetrator of the assault. Separated or divorced women were the most likely to know their attacker.

Assaults can occur in a variety of settings, but the most common locations were within or around the home (25% of all victims) or on the street (20%). The pattern was quite different for men and women.

Women were much more likely to be assaulted in or around the home (42%, compared with 15% of male victims). This difference, together with the differences in the proportions of men and women who knew their attackers, indicates that the pattern of violence against women generally differs from that experienced by men. More men are assaulted by strangers while more women are

Victim/offender relationship, 1993

Marital status of victims	Some or all offenders known to victim		
	Men	Women	Total
	%	%	%
Married	57.9	66.4	60.8
Separated/divorced	47.9	83.0	67.1
Never married	39.1	64.8	47.7
All victims(a)	46.5	68.4	54.4

(a) Includes widowed people.

Source: National Crime and Safety Survey (unpublished data).

Characteristics of victims	Men	Women	Total
	%	%	%
Marital status			
Married	38.7	40.0	39.2
Separated, divorced	32.5	56.2	45.5
Never married	22.2	30.9	25.1
Age group (years)			
15-19	21.8	27.9	23.9
20-24	21.7	33.1	25.7
25-34	32.6	44.4	36.9
35-44	33.0	43.8	37.5
45-54	47.6	47.0	47.4
55 or more	22.7	28.5	24.7
Victim/offender relationship			
Offender known	36.4	37.3	36.8
Offender unknown	23.9	39.3	27.8
Injuries			
Injured	43.4	39.5	41.8
Not injured	23.3	37.4	28.1
All victims(a)	28.8	38.1	32.1

(a) Includes widowed people.

Source: National Crime and Safety Survey (unpublished data).

assaulted by people whom they know and more often, as suggested by location, by current and previous partners (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Violence against women, pp. 179-183).

Injury

Results from the 1993 Crime and Safety Survey reveal that only a small proportion (14%) of assaults involved the use of a weapon. The survey estimated that 97,500 people (about 30%) had been injured during the assault. The type or severity of the injury was not recorded.

Hospital separations data for 1992-93 show that 17,229 people (on average 47 people a day) had been hospitalised for assault-related injuries⁴. As a proportion of all assault victims recorded in the Crime Victims Survey, this data suggests that about 5% of assault victims sustained injuries serious enough to warrant admittance to hospital.

More men than women were injured in their last incident of assault (about 60% of all those who were injured were men). In terms of risks of injury, however, the injury rate was slightly higher among women (33% of women compared to 27% of men).

Reporting behaviour

In 1993, one third (32%) of assault victims reported the last incident to the police. While victims were most likely to do so if they were injured (42%, compared to 28% for those not injured) the overall reporting rate was low for various reasons. The most common reasons given by victims for not reporting incidents were: that the incident was too trivial or unimportant (35%); that police would or could not do anything (14%); or that it was a private matter (12%). A further 6% said they were afraid of reprisals or revenge.

Patterns of reporting behaviour differ between different groups of people, suggesting that the reasons for not reporting also differ between them. Middle-aged people, particularly those aged 45-54, were more likely to report incidents to the police and in almost every age group, men were less likely than women to report incidents of assault.

Among men, those who knew their attacker and those who had been injured, were more likely to report the incident to the police. Among women, on the other hand, these circumstances made little difference to their reporting behaviour.

Never married, separated and divorced women were more likely to report to police than their male counterparts, but there was little difference in reporting rates for married men and women.



- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1995, *National Crime Statistics, 1995*, Cat. no. 4510.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research *Contemporary Issues in Crime and Justice*, No. 28, May 1996.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1996, *Women's Safety, Australia*, Cat. no. 4128.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, National Injury Surveillance Unit, Hospital Separations (unpublished data).

Violence against women

VIOLENT CRIME

A national survey of Australian women conducted in 1996 found that almost half a million women (7%) had experienced an incident of violence in the 12 month period preceding the survey.

Safety from physical attack, harassment or other forms of aggression or abuse is central to a person's sense of well-being and is closely associated with fundamental notions of human rights. Physical injury and psychological trauma from attempted, threatened or actual incidents of violence can have major consequences for the lives of victims and can generate a substantial burden to families and the broader community in providing support for victims. It is for these reasons that an understanding of the nature and extent of violence and of means for minimising violent behaviours are issues of major public concern.

Violence in society takes many forms. Men, women and children can all be victims, as well as perpetrators of violence. In recent years violence against women has been a particular concern of governments, community groups and women themselves.

During the 12 months prior to the 1996 Women's Safety Survey 7% of women experienced an incident of violence. Although small in percentage terms, this corresponds to a sizeable number of women, 490,400. Women were more likely to experience physical violence than sexual violence

Violence against women

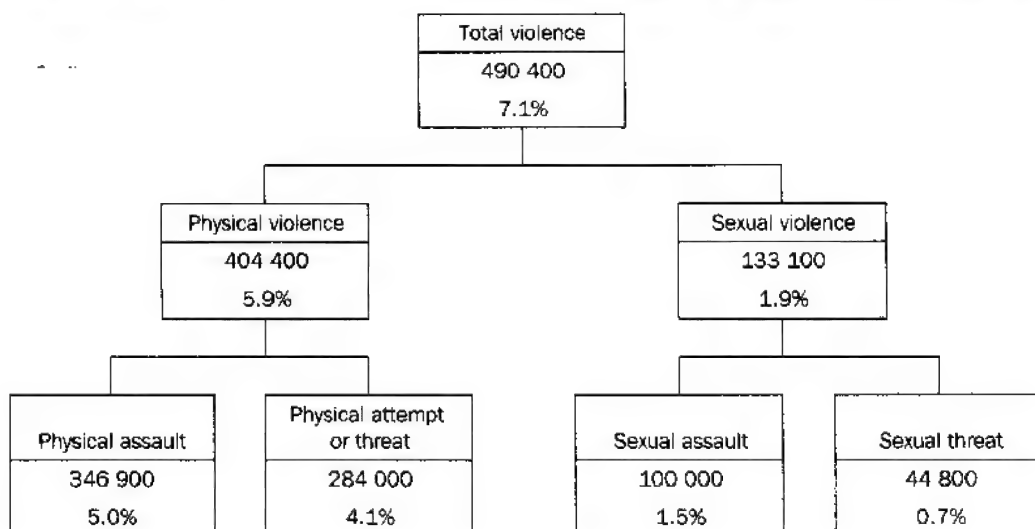
Violence is any incident involving the occurrence, attempt or threat of either physical or sexual assault which occurred since the age of 15.

Physical assault is use of physical force with the intent to harm or frighten a woman.

Sexual assault is any act of a sexual nature carried out against a woman's will through the use of physical force, intimidation or coercion, or any attempts to do this.

Threats are included only if a woman believes they are able and likely to be carried out.

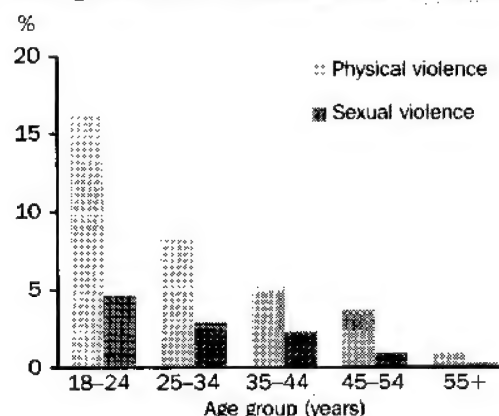
These definitions are based on actions which would be considered as criminal offences under State and Territory criminal law. They were developed for the Women's Safety Survey which was conducted across Australia from February to April 1996. The aim of the survey was to measure women's safety at home and in the community and in particular to determine the nature and extent of violence against women. Measures of violence are available for the 12 months prior to the survey as well as for women's experiences of violence since the age of 15.



(a) A woman could have experienced both physical and sexual violence, as well as both assault and threat. The components when added may therefore be larger than the total.

Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Women's experience of violence during the last 12 months, 1996



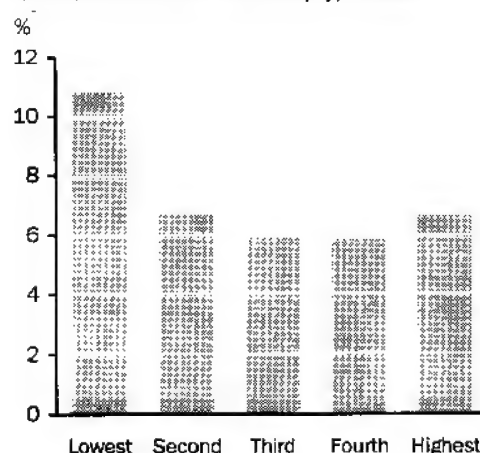
Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

(6% compared with 2%). However, 47,100 women had experienced both physical and sexual violence on separate occasions. Women were nearly four times more likely to experience violence by a man than by a woman. 22% of women who experienced violence (109,100) reported incidents by more than one perpetrator in the previous 12 months.

Age

Younger women are more at risk of violence than older women. 19% of women aged 18-24 had experienced one or more incidents of violence in the previous 12-month period

Women's experience of violence during the last 12 months by socio-economic status(b), 1996



(a) Women living in areas ranked (from highest to lowest) into five groups of equal size according to the socio-economic status of the area at the time of the 1991 census (see box for further details).

Source: Women's Safety Survey (unpublished data).

Measuring socio-economic status

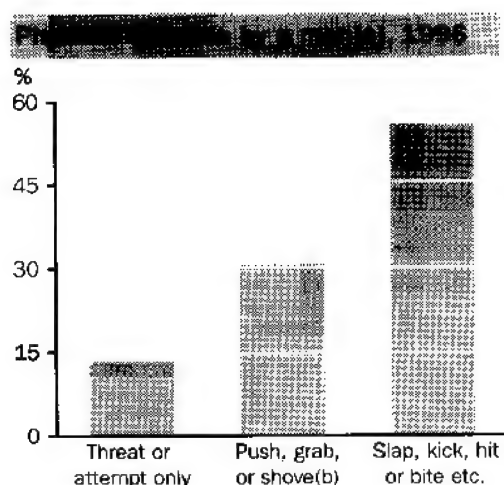
The ABS has developed several indexes to describe the socio-economic status of people living in different geographic areas¹. Using 1991 population census data these have been derived by a multivariate technique known as principal component analysis. This technique summarises a large number of socio-economic variables into a single measure which can then be used to rank areas (from highest to lowest) on a broad socio-economic scale. By allocating the index value of each area to individuals living in those areas, people in low socio-economic status areas can be readily distinguished from those living in high socio-economic status areas.

In this review, a person's socio-economic status has been determined using the *index of relative socio-economic disadvantage* constructed for Census Collection Districts (CDs). CDs are usually clusters of approximately 200-250 dwellings. CDs with the greatest relative disadvantage typically have high proportions of low income families, unemployed people, people without educational qualifications, households renting public housing and people in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations. Conversely, the least disadvantaged areas tend to have higher proportions of high income earners, professional workers and more highly qualified people, as well as low unemployment rates.

compared to 7% of women aged 35-44 and 1.2% of women aged 55 and over. The same pattern is evident for both physical and sexual violence. However, the decline with age is greater for physical violence than for sexual violence. Women who experience violence by women tended on average to be younger than those who experienced violence by men. 46% of women reporting violence by women were aged 18-24 years compared to 36% of those reporting violence by men.

Socio-economic status

Although less marked than the differences related to age, women from areas with the greatest socio-economic disadvantage are slightly more at risk of violence than others. These areas tend to have higher unemployment rates, a higher proportion of low-income families, and people without qualifications working in unskilled or semi-skilled jobs. In 1996, over 10% of women from the most disadvantaged areas had experienced an incident of violence in the past 12 months. The prevalence rates for other socio-economic groups were within a narrow band, between 5.8% and 6.7%.



(a) Refers to last incident during the last 12 months.

(b) Alone or in combination with threat or attempt.

Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Physical violence

Incidents of physical violence may involve one or more actions on the part of the perpetrator. The Women's Safety Survey classified the nature of physical violence on the basis of these actions in the last incident.

Women were more likely to be pushed, grabbed or shoved (3.5%) or to experience threatened or attempted assault (3.3%) than they were to be slapped, choked or beaten (1.1%, 0.7% and 0.5% respectively). This is partly because less serious actions such as pushing and shoving, while also occurring on their own, often occur in conjunction with more serious acts such as punching, beating or choking.

Of the 5% of women (338,700) who experienced physical violence by a man in the previous 12 month period, 13% experienced a threat or attempt only and a further 31% were pushed, grabbed or shoved either alone, or in conjunction with threats or attempts. The remaining incidents (56%) involved more serious actions such as hitting, slapping, punching or beating which may also have been in conjunction with pushing, grabbing, shoving or threatening.

The severity of violence can also be assessed from injuries sustained. Of those women who had been assaulted by a man in the previous 12-month period, 48% who were physically assaulted and 22% who were sexually assaulted, were injured in the last incident. The most common injuries were bruises, cuts and scratches. While a sexual assault had to involve force, this may have been physical

force or coercion, including the threat of physical harm to the woman or her children.

Marital status and relationship to perpetrator

Perhaps because of their different ages and lifestyles, women who were married or in a de facto relationship were less likely to experience violence by a man than those who were not married. 4% of women with a current partner experienced violence by either their partner or another man in the previous 12-month period, compared to 10% of women who were not married. This pattern was observed for both physical and sexual violence.

The likelihood of a woman experiencing violence, by someone she knows or a stranger, also differed according to whether or not she had a partner. Women who were married or in a de facto relationship were more likely to have experienced violence by their partner than by another man known to them or by a stranger. Among women who were not married, those most at risk of violence were women who had a previous partner. 5% of these women experienced violence from their previous partner in the last 12 months.

Women who were not married were also at least three times more likely to have experienced physical or sexual violence from strangers and other known men, than women with a current partner.

Partner violence

Of women who have ever been married or in a de facto relationship, 23% experienced violence by a partner at some time during or

Violence by a man(a), 1996

Relationship to perpetrator	Married/ de facto rate(b)	Not married rate(b)	Total rate(b)
Current partner	2.6	..	2.6
Previous partner	* *	4.8	3.3
Other known man	1.0	3.4	1.9
Stranger	0.7	3.0	1.5
Total(c)	4.0	10.0	6.2

(a) During the last 12 months.

(b) Rate per 100 women in the relevant population.

(c) If a woman experienced violence by more than one male perpetrator, she was only counted once in the total.

Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

following the relationship. Women were considerably more likely to have experienced violence in a past than a current relationship (42% compared to 8%). Three quarters of the women who experienced violence by their current partner reported that it had occurred only once or rarely (262,700) compared to approximately 40% of women who had experienced violence from a previous partner. Notwithstanding this, 12% of women (41,700) who reported violence from their current partner at some stage in the relationship said that they currently lived in fear.

In addition to information about the occurrence of violence, the survey also collected information about emotional abuse a woman may have experienced by her partner. Of all women in a current relationship, 9% reported some form of emotional abuse, which was defined as manipulation, isolation or intimidation. Women who experienced violence from their partner were significantly more likely than those who had not, to experience emotional abuse (59% compared to 4%).

Pregnancy is a time when women may be vulnerable to abuse. Of those women who experienced violence by a previous partner, 701,200 had been pregnant at some time during their relationship. While 42% of these women experienced violence during the pregnancy (292,100), 20% experienced violence for the first time while they were pregnant.

There were 483,700 women who separated from a previous partner who had been violent to them and subsequently returned. During the time they were separated, 35% of these

women experienced violence by their partner. Half of the women who experienced violence by a previous partner finally ended their relationship because of the violence they experienced or because of threats against their children.

Children witnessing violence

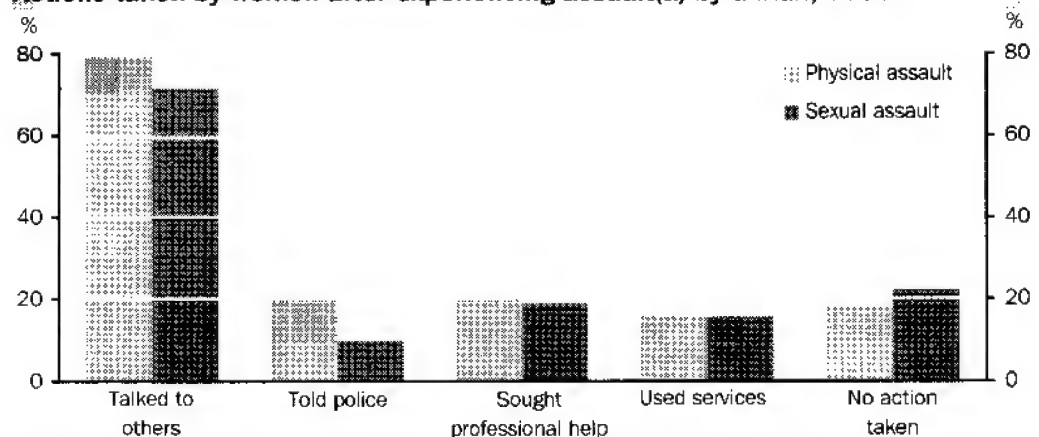
Violence which occurs between partners in a home may affect the children who also live in the home. 61% of women who experienced violence by a current partner (211,600) reported that they had children in their care at some time during the relationship and 38% said that these children had witnessed the violence (132,400). 46% of women who experienced violence by a previous partner said that children in their care had witnessed the violence.

Actions taken in response to violence

There is a range of actions that a woman can take as a result of an incident of violence including: contacting the police; seeking advice or support from a professional, such as a doctor, counsellor or minister of religion; contacting a service provider for crisis, legal or financial assistance; or speaking to other people, such as family and friends.

Overwhelmingly, the main action taken after experiencing an assault by a man was talking to other people, particularly family and friends. 79% of women who were physically assaulted by a man since the age of 15, and 72% who were sexually assaulted, discussed their last experience with family, friends or

Actions taken by women after experiencing assault(a) by a man, 1996



(a) Refers to last incident experienced since the age of 15 years. Excludes women whose last incident occurred more than 20 years ago.

Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

others. Women were more likely to contact a crisis service about sexual assault than physical assault (11% compared to 6%) although the rate of contact was low for both. The pattern was similar among women who experienced incidents of physical and sexual assault in the previous 12 month period.

Reporting to the police

Of women who experienced a physical assault by a man in the previous 12-month period, 54,400 (19%) said they reported the last incident to the police, as did 14,700 (15%) of women who were sexually assaulted.

One fifth of women who had experienced an incident of physical assault by a man since the age of 15 had reported the last incident to the police (302,300), as did one tenth of women who were sexually assaulted (75,500). A small proportion of incidents were reported to the police by somebody else.

Women were more likely to report incidents that were perpetrated by a stranger, than by somebody they knew. Of women whose last incident of assault was by a stranger, 35% who were physically assaulted and 25% who were sexually assaulted reported the incident to the police. Women who were physically assaulted by a current partner were least likely to have reported the incident (5%).

Women were more likely to report incidents in which they were injured. Of women who were injured in the last incident of physical assault experienced since the age of 15, 29% reported the incident to the police compared to 10% who were not injured. The pattern was similar for incidents of sexual assault.

The main reason women gave for not telling the police was because they dealt with the incident themselves. Almost one quarter of women who were physically assaulted and 14% of those sexually assaulted did not contact the police because they did not consider it a serious offence. 12% of those who were sexually assaulted said they did not

Women who reported the last incident of assault(a) by a man to the police, 1996

Relationship to perpetrator	Physical assault		Sexual assault	
	'000	rate(b)	'000	rate(b)
Current partner	12.9*	5.1*	**	**
Previous partner	163.9	24.2	29.4	16.6
Boyfriend/date	14.7*	9.5*	7.7*	3.6*
Other known man	51.1	21.3	17.5*	6.7*
Stranger	59.7	34.7	20.9*	24.5*
Total(c)	302.3	20.2	75.5	9.8

(a) Since the age of 15 years. Excludes women whose last incident occurred more than 20 years ago.

(b) Rate per 100 women who experienced assault by the perpetrator group.

(c) If a woman experienced assault by more than one male perpetrator, she was only counted once in the total.

Source: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

report the last incident to the police because they were ashamed or embarrassed.

Once an incident is reported to the police there is the possibility that the perpetrator will be charged and consequently appear in court. 28% of incidents of physical assault reported to the police and 22% of incidents of sexual assault resulted in the perpetrator being charged.

Of women who reported in the survey that they had experienced an incident of violence by a man since the age of 15, 18% (267,100) who were physically assaulted and 22% (170,800) who were sexually assaulted had never told anybody about the last incident, prior to the survey.



1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1991, *Information Paper: 1991 Census — Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas*, Cat. no. 2912.0, ABS, Canberra.

Prisoners in Australia

CORRECTIVE SERVICES

There were 16,800 prisoners in Australian prisons in June 1996, a rate of about 120 for every 100,000 adults in the population.

Australian courts have available to them a range of penalties to impose on those convicted of a crime. These range from fines and community service orders for relatively minor offences, to life imprisonment for the most serious.

People given prison sentences represent a minority of all persons convicted of criminal offences. It has been estimated that about 5-10% of all lower court convictions in 1995 resulted in a prison sentence¹.

On the other hand, prisoners are made up of a high proportion of those convicted of serious offences: all murderers; virtually all serious sexual offenders; and the majority of armed robbers, are given prison sentences. Shorter prison sentences are also handed down for less serious offences than these. The length of a sentence varies according to the nature and severity of the offence, the offender's criminal record and any mitigating circumstances. The length and type of sentence for a given crime also differs between States.

Trends

During June 1996, there was a daily average of 16,806 prisoners in Australian prisons, up from 11,243 in June 1986 and 8,840 in June 1976. Imprisonment rates have also increased, from 91 persons for every 100,000 adults in the national population in 1976 to 96 persons in 1986 and 122 persons in 1996.

Corrective services

Corrective services can be divided into four categories, distinguished by the degree to which they restrict a person's liberty and the activities they can undertake:²

Prisons are legally sanctioned facilities which hold offenders.

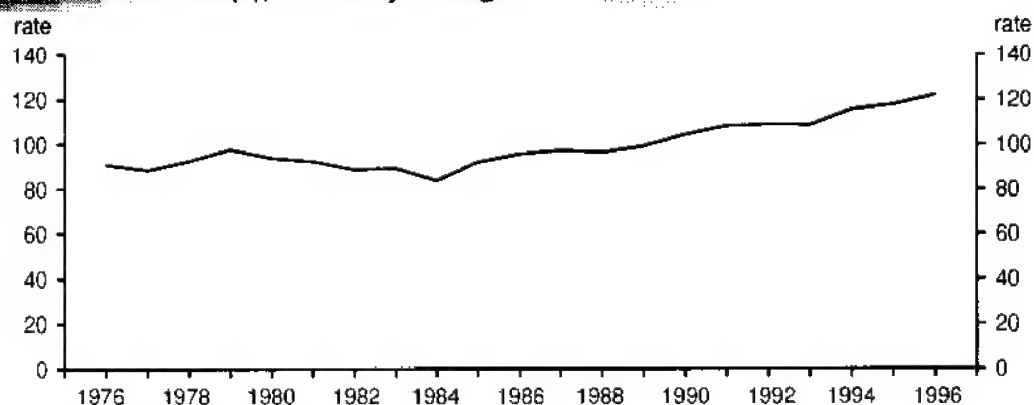
Periodic detention is currently available only to New South Wales courts. It involves persons being in custody for two consecutive days a week, remaining at liberty for the rest of the week. There were 1,291 prisoners in this category at the time of the 1994 Prison Census.

Community Custody Sentences are orders which deprive offenders of their liberty by confining their physical location to a facility, dwelling or property (which is not a secure facility) and/or requiring them to be under controlling supervision for more than 50% of the time.

Community Supervision Sentences are orders imposed by courts which prescribe conditions and place offenders under controlling supervision for less than 50% of the time.

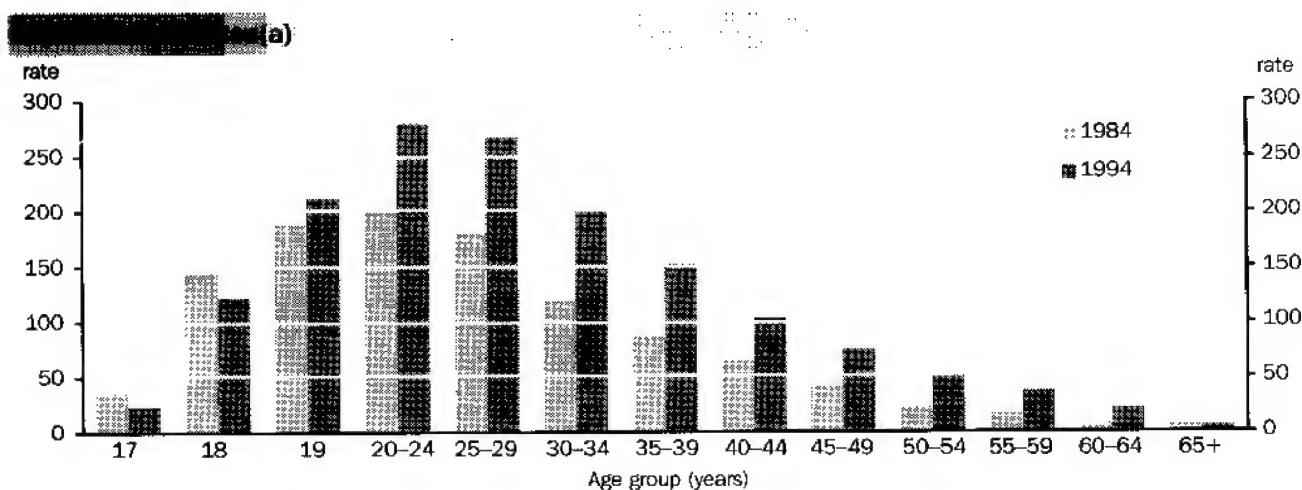
The increase in imprisonment rates, most evident since the mid 1980s, has occurred for a number of reasons. These include an increase in sentence length by some jurisdictions, an increase in the use of imprisonment for some crimes and the abolition of sentence-reducing mechanisms such as remission (time remitted from the sentence, typically for good behaviour). Even

Imprisonment rate(a), June daily average



(a) Rate per 100,000 people aged 18 years or over.

Source: Salloom, S., Biles, D. and Walker, J., *Australian Prison Trends*; Australian Institute of Criminology, *Australian Prison Trends*; Australian Bureau of Statistics, *National Correctional Statistics: Prisons*.



(a) Per 100,000 people in each age group.

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics *Prisoners in Australia, 1994: Results of the 1994 National Prison Census*; Australian Institute of Criminology, *Australian Prisoners 1984*.

minor changes in sentencing can lead to large changes in prison numbers, since the minority of sentences (24%) are custodial².

The general increase in the rate of imprisonment over the period from 1984 to 1994 occurred in almost every age group, and was particularly marked for those aged over 19 years. Against this trend, the rate of imprisonment was a little lower for those aged 17-18 years in 1994 than was the case in 1984, and only slightly higher for those aged 19 years. This decrease could be accounted for by the wider range of corrective service options available for young offenders.

The rate of imprisonment has increased over the last decade. While corresponding data for community-based corrections is not available over that period, there has been a slight decline in the proportion of the population serving community-based corrections in recent years. In 1992-93 there were 378 people per 100,000 population serving Community Supervision Orders, compared with 365 per 100,000 in 1995-96. About 3 people per 100,000 were serving Community Custody Orders in 1995-96.²

Age-sex profile of prisoners

Information about the characteristics of the prisoner population is available from the 1994 Prison Census. Nearly all prisoners at that time were men (95%), almost half of whom were aged between 20 and 29 years. The median age of prisoners (29 years), was relatively young compared with the median age for the adult population aged 17 and over (about 42 years).

The age profile for women was similar to that for men. The median age of female prisoners was 30 years, compared with 29 years for men. Only a small proportion of men and women in prison were aged 50 years or over.

This profile indicates that most serious crimes are committed by young men. This pattern is confirmed by the different rates of imprisonment for each sex and for older and younger age groups.

Australian correctional statistics

The annual national Prison Census is compiled by the ABS from information collected by the correctional agencies on the basis of the prison population as at midnight 30 June. All adult prisons in Australia are covered, although the minimum age for prisoners varies between States and Territories (either 17 or 18 years). The most recent data available is from the 1994 Census.

Not all people in custody are in prison. They may also be held in police lock ups, secure psychiatric facilities or under special programs such as home detention. These detainees are not included in the Prison Census.

Prison Census data provides a picture of the persons in prison on a single day, which is not representative of the flow of prisoners. Most sentenced prisoners (58%) in the Prison Census were serving long sentences of two years or more for relatively serious offences, but the flow of offenders in and out of prisons is made up primarily of persons serving short sentences for relatively minor offences.

Australian Prison Trends data gives the daily average number of persons held in custody for each month. The figures do not include periodic detainees.

Age group (years)	Age distribution		Imprisonment rates	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
	%	%	rate(a)	rate(a)
Under 20	5.7	3.0	230	7
20-29	45.5	43.7	515	26
30-39	29.4	35.8	332	21
40-49	13.4	11.5	169	8
50 and over	6.1	6.0	46	2
Total	100.0	100.0	242	12
	no.	no.		
Total	16 107	837		

(a) Rate per 100,000 of the relevant population.

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics *Prisoners in Australia, 1994: Results of the 1994 National Prison Census*.

Crimes committed

Almost 90% of the 16,944 people in prison at 30 June 1994 had been sentenced; most of the rest were remanded in custody awaiting trial or sentence. Unsented prisoners also include a small number of prisoners awaiting deportation, a few forensic patients, and those detained at the Governor's pleasure (mostly because they are unfit for trial).

Although prisoners may have been convicted for multiple crimes, a view of the reasons for which they were imprisoned is most readily obtained by focussing on their most serious

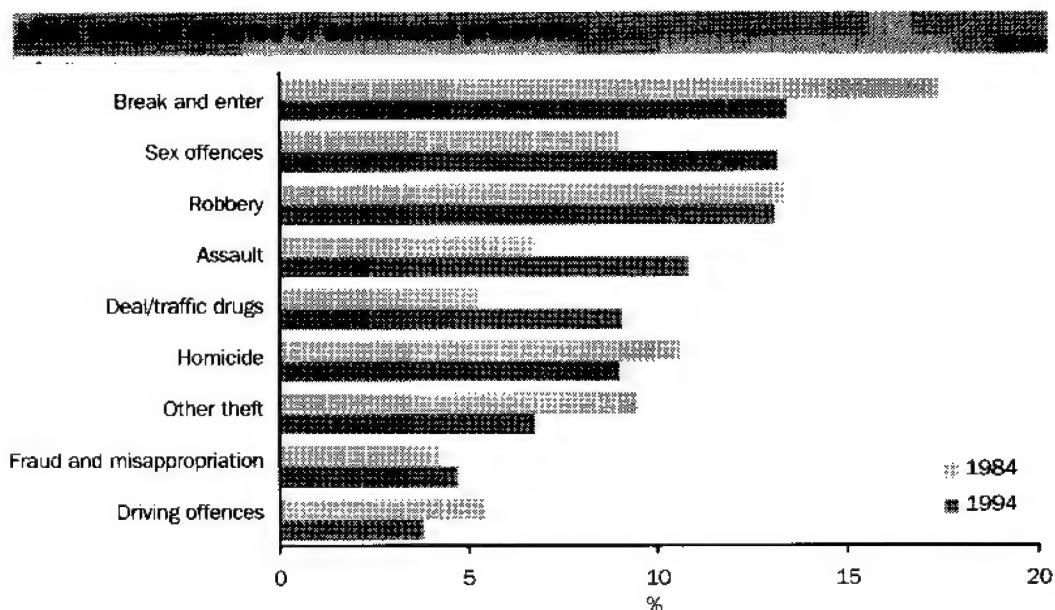
crime, usually the one for which they received the longest sentence.

Using this criterion, almost one half (46%) of all sentenced prisoners at the time of the 1994 Prison Census were convicted for violent offences against other people: sex offences (13%); robbery (13%); assault (11%) and homicide (9%).

Just over a quarter of all prisoners had been sentenced for a property offence (including break and enter, fraud and misappropriation, receiving and other theft). Drug offenders (including those who grow, possess, deal or traffic) made up 12% of all sentenced prisoners.

Not only were the numbers of men and women prisoners widely different, but the patterns of most serious offences for which men and women were serving prison sentences were also different. Sex offences were relatively common for men (with almost 2,000 offenders, representing 14% of male prisoners), but rare for women (7 offenders, representing 1% of female prisoners). Higher proportions of male prisoners were imprisoned for robbery and driving offences (13% and 4% respectively) than female prisoners (7% and 1%).

The average age of prisoners at the time of their reception into prison differed, depending on the most serious offence for which they were sentenced. Prisoners convicted of assault, robbery, break and enter, and other theft were, on average, younger (with an average age of under 30 years). Sex



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics *Prisoners in Australia, 1994: Results of the 1994 National Prison Census*; and Australian Institute of Criminology, *Australian Prisoners 1984*.

Most serious offence of sentenced prisoners, 1994

Selected offences	Men	Women	Mean age at reception	Prisoners with known prior imprisonment	Mean aggregate sentence	Mean actual time expected to serve
	no.	no.	years	%	months	months
Murder	859	37	29	55	207	143
Other homicide	421	33	30	48	89	58
Assault	1 558	69	28	69	35	25
Sex offences	1 971	7	36	43	79	51
Robbery	1 915	48	26	71	82	60
Break and enter	1 926	88	25	78	34	28
Fraud and misappropriation	593	116	36	46	31	23
Other theft	937	77	26	74	20	17
Deal/traffic drugs	1 269	95	35	38	70	52
Driving offences	565	9	31	63	8	7
All offences(a)	14 280	718	30	61	54	39

(a) Includes other offences.

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics *Prisoners in Australia, 1994: Results of the 1994 National Prison Census*.

offences, fraud and misappropriation, and drug offences were associated with older than average ages.

It is apparent that there has been some change between 1984 and 1994 in the reasons for which people have been imprisoned. Break and enter offences were relatively less common reasons for imprisonment in 1994 (13% of prisoners, compared to 17% in 1984), as were other theft, driving offences and homicide. Offences that have shown a proportionate increase were assault, sex offences and dealing or trafficking in drugs.

Length of sentence

The aggregate sentence refers to the longest period that the offender may be detained under sentence in the current episode. In 1994, the mean aggregate sentence imposed in Australia for prisoners was 4.5 years (4.6 years for men and 3.0 for women).

Sentence lengths vary considerably according to types of offences, and do not necessarily reflect the actual time a prisoner is likely to spend in prison. The actual time a person serves depends upon the sentence(s) handed down, the system of remissions and forms of parole available in the various States and Territories, and whether any time was spent in custody prior to conviction (for example, on remand or in police custody)⁵.

In 1994, the mean time that prisoners were expected to serve in custody was 3.2 years (3.3 years for men and 2.1 years for women). About half were expected to serve less than two years.

Prisoners convicted on a most serious offence of murder and given a determinate sentence had an mean expected time to serve in custody of nearly 12 years. In some States and Territories all prisoners convicted of murder are given a life (indeterminate) sentence for which the expected time to serve in custody cannot be calculated.

Other than prisoners convicted of murder, those with a most serious offence of robbery or other homicide were expected to spend the longest time in custody (about five years).

More than 60% of offenders in prison at the time of the 1994 Census had been imprisoned at some time previously. Male prisoners had a higher rate of prior imprisonment (61%) than female (56%). This high rate of recidivism is supported by a recent government review², which found that around 38% of prisoners released in 1993 returned to corrective services within two years.

All offence types had large proportions of prisoners who had been imprisoned previously. This ranged from 78% of people in prison for break and enter offences to 38% for dealing or trafficking in drugs.

State and Territory prisoners, 1994

	Units	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT
All prisoners	no.	7 711	2 522	2 491	1 348	2 137	258	455	22
Unsentenced prisoners	%	9.6	13.2	13.1	16.2	9.9	14.0	13.0	100.0
Imprisonment	rate(a)	167.8	73.9	104.0	118.7	168.6	73.4	383.4	9.8
Average time expected to serve	months	49.4	34.4	33.2	34.7	25.6	22.6	21.7	..

(a) Rate per 100,000 people aged 18 years or over.

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics *Prisoners in Australia, 1994: Results of the 1994 National Prison Census*.

Indigenous prisoners

The 1987-91 Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody drew public attention to the issue of high rates of imprisonment among Indigenous people. Both the number of Indigenous prisoners and their imprisonment rate have increased over recent years.

For the month of June 1996, the number of Indigenous prisoners in Australia averaged 3,129 (19% of all prisoners in Australia). The imprisonment rate was 1,764 per 100,000 adults, 18 times greater than the non-Indigenous rate of imprisonment. Three years earlier, in June 1993 there were 2,294 Indigenous prisoners (16% of the total prison population), and the imprisonment rate was 1,366 per 100,000 adults, 15 times greater than the non-Indigenous rate of imprisonment.

As was the case for non-Indigenous prisoners, almost all Indigenous prisoners were male (94%), but Indigenous prisoners were typically younger, with a median age of 26 years. A larger proportion of Indigenous prisoners were aged under 30 years (69%) than non-Indigenous prisoners (51%). This partly reflects the relatively younger age distribution of all Indigenous people in the population.

The most common offences with which Indigenous prisoners had been charged or convicted were: assault (25%); break and enter (15%); sex offences (13%); and robbery (10%). Nearly four in five (79%) Indigenous prisoners had some prior history of imprisonment, considerably higher than prisoners overall (61%).

Patterns of imprisonment in Australian States and Territories

The rate of imprisonment and the average time prisoners were expected to serve differed between the States and Territories. This may be because responses to crime and

the extent to which other corrective options are used, also differ between jurisdictions.

In June 1994, the largest prison population was in New South Wales with 7,711, or around 46% of all Australian prisoners. This included 1,291 prisoners serving sentences of periodic detention (two days per week).

The highest imprisonment rate was in the Northern Territory (383 per 100,000 adults), reflecting the high proportion of Indigenous people there. This was followed by Western Australia (169) and New South Wales (168).

The longest sentences were for prisoners in New South Wales (where prisoners have an average expected time to serve of 4.1 years) and shortest in the Northern Territory (1.8 years).

The number of unsentenced prisoners, mostly those remanded in custody awaiting trial or sentence, can be used as an indicator of stresses on the court system. In June 1994 it was found that the highest rate of unsentenced imprisonment was in South Australia (16% of prisoners), and the lowest in New South Wales (10%).

Endnotes

- 1 Frieberg, A. and Ross, S. 'Change and stability in sentencing', *Law in Context*, April 1996.
- 2 Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision 1997, *Report on Government Service Provision*, Industry Commission, Melbourne.
- 3 Salloom, S. et al. *Australian Prison Trends*, Nos 1-200, May 1976-January 1993.

International



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Caution

Statistics presented in this chapter have been reproduced from international statistical compendia. National statistical systems differ from country to country and therefore caution should be exercised when comparing international data. Details of national differences can be found in the country notes in the source publications.



position					
Country	Reference year	Total population	0-14 years	15-64 years	65 years and over
		'000	%	%	%
Australia	1995	18 088	21.5	66.8	11.6
Canada	1995	29 463	20.8	67.3	11.8
China	1995	1 221 462	26.4	67.5	6.1
France	1995	57 981	19.6	65.5	14.9
Greece	1995	10 451	16.7	67.4	15.9
Hong Kong	1995	5 865	19.1	70.7	10.2
Indonesia	1995	197 588	33.0	62.7	4.3
Italy	1995	57 187	15.1	68.9	16.0
Japan	1995	125 095	16.2	69.6	14.1
Korea (Republic of)	1995	44 995	23.6	70.8	5.6
Malaysia	1995	20 140	37.9	58.1	3.9
New Zealand	1995	3 575	23.4	65.3	11.3
Papua New Guinea	1995	4 302	39.6	57.6	2.9
Singapore	1995	2 848	22.7	70.5	6.7
Sweden	1995	8 780	19.0	63.7	17.3
UK	1995	58 258	19.6	65.0	15.5
USA	1995	263 250	22.0	65.3	12.6
Viet Nam	1995	74 545	37.5	57.7	4.9

Source: World Health Organisation *World Health Statistics Annual* 1995.



Country	Reference year	Annual average growth rate	Reference year	Annual rate of natural increase(a)	Crude birth rate(a)	Crude death rate(a)	Reference year	Total fertility rate
		%		no.	no.	no.		no.
Australia	1990-94	1.1	1993	7.9	14.7	6.9	1993	1.9
Canada	1990-94	2.4	1994	5.9	13.1	7.2	1990	1.8
China	1990-94	1.1	1990-95	11.3	18.5	7.2	1990-95	2.0
France	1990-94	0.4	1993	3.2	12.3	9.2	1992	1.7
Greece	1990-94	0.6	1994	0.5	9.8	9.3	1993	1.3
Hong Kong	1990-94	1.5	1993	6.7	11.9	5.2	1993	1.2
Indonesia	1990-94	1.7	1990-95	16.4	24.7	8.4	1990-95	2.9
Italy	1990-94	-0.2	1994	-0.2	9.3	9.5	1992	1.3
Japan	1990-94	0.3	1994	3.1	10.1	7.0	1993	1.5
Korea (Republic of)	1990-94	0.9	1993	10.7	15.9	5.2	1991	1.6
Malaysia	1990-94	2.3	1990-95	23.6	28.7	5.1	1990-95	3.6
New Zealand	1990-94	1.0	1993	9.2	17.1	7.9	1992	2.1
Papua New Guinea	1990-94	1.9	1990-95	22.7	33.4	10.7	1990-95	5.1
Singapore	1990-94	2.0	1994	11.8	16.9	5.1	1994	1.8
Sweden	1990-94	0.6	1994	2.3	12.6	10.3	1993	2.0
UK	1990-94	0.2	1992	2.5	13.5	10.9	1993	1.8
USA	1990-94	1.1	1993	6.9	15.6	8.8	1991	2.1
Viet Nam	1990-94	2.3	1990-95	22.7	30.7	8.0	1990-95	3.9

(a) Per 1,000 population.

Source: United Nations 1994 Demographic Yearbook.



Country	Population			Median age			0-14 years			65 years and over		
	2000	2020	2050	2000	2020	2050	2000	2020	2050	2000	2020	2050
	million	million	million	years	years	years	%	%	%	%	%	%
Australia(b)	19.2	23.6	26.1	35.0	38.8	41.3	21.0	19.3	18.3	11.7	15.7	22.4
Canada	31.0	36.9	39.9	36.3	39.3	40.8	20.6	19.2	18.5	12.2	16.8	21.7
China	1 284.6	1 488.1	1 606.0	29.9	35.9	39.2	25.3	20.7	19.3	6.7	10.5	18.2
France	59.0	61.0	60.5	37.5	42.1	42.8	18.8	17.2	17.6	15.7	19.7	24.5
Greece	10.6	10.1	8.6	39.6	46.0	49.2	15.0	13.7	14.7	18.0	22.2	31.4
Hong Kong	6.0	6.0	4.9	37.2	46.9	53.0	16.5	12.7	12.9	11.7	19.3	34.5
Indonesia	212.7	264.1	318.8	24.7	31.4	37.7	30.8	23.6	20.1	4.7	7.0	15.7
Italy	57.3	53.6	43.6	39.8	48.3	52.0	14.6	12.1	13.2	17.6	23.2	34.2
Japan	126.5	124.0	110.0	40.7	46.3	47.4	15.3	14.2	15.7	16.4	25.2	30.2
Korea (Republic of)	47.1	53.3	56.5	31.2	38.5	40.6	22.2	19.2	18.5	6.6	11.5	21.1
Malaysia	22.3	29.8	38.1	22.5	29.6	37.8	35.2	24.7	19.8	4.1	7.0	15.0
New Zealand	3.8	4.3	4.7	33.2	37.3	40.2	23.4	20.0	18.7	11.2	15.0	20.3
Papua New Guinea	4.8	7.0	9.6	20.5	24.2	34.1	38.7	32.0	22.4	3.0	4.0	9.7
Singapore	3.0	3.3	3.3	34.8	41.4	42.9	21.6	17.2	17.5	7.6	16.0	23.7
Sweden	9.0	9.6	10.0	38.7	40.9	41.6	19.9	18.1	18.0	16.7	20.7	22.3
UK	59.0	60.9	61.6	37.1	41.1	41.6	19.5	17.8	18.1	15.3	18.0	22.6
USA	275.1	320.6	349.0	35.5	38.0	40.3	21.8	19.8	18.8	12.4	16.1	20.8
Viet Nam	82.6	111.7	143.6	22.1	28.4	37.7	35.7	25.6	20.1	5.1	5.6	14.6

(a) Medium-variant projection.

(b) United Nations projections for Australia may not agree with ABS projections due to differences in assumptions and methodology.

Source: United Nations World Population Prospects : The 1994 Revision.



Country	Reference year	Infant mortality rate(a)	Reference year	Life expectancy at birth	
				Males	Females
		no.		years	years
Australia	1993	6.1	1993	75.0	80.9
Canada	1994	6.2	1985-87	73.0	79.8
China	1990-95	44.5	1990-95	66.7	70.5
France	1991	7.3	1991	72.9	81.1
Greece	1994	8.3	1990-91	74.6	80.0
Hong Kong	1993	4.8	1993	75.2	80.7
Indonesia	1990-95	58.1	1990-95	61.0	64.5
Italy	1994	6.7	1989	73.5	80.0
Japan	1994	4.2	1993	76.3	82.5
Korea (Republic of)	1990-95	10.9	1991	67.7	75.7
Malaysia	1990-95	13.0	1990-95	68.7	73.0
New Zealand	1993	7.2	1990-92	72.9	78.7
Papua New Guinea	1990-95	68.3	1990-95	55.2	56.7
Singapore	1994	4.3	1993	74.0	78.3
Sweden	1994	3.4	1993	75.5	80.8
UK	1993	6.3	1992	73.5	79.1
USA	1993	8.2	1991	72.0	78.9
Viet Nam	1990-95	42.0	1979	63.7	67.9

(a) Per 1,000 live births.

Source: United Nations 1994 Demographic Yearbook.



Country	Reference year	Malignant neoplasms (cancer)	Ischaemic heart disease	Cerebro-vascular disease (stroke)	Motor vehicle traffic accidents	Suicide and self-inflicted injury(b)	All causes
		no.	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
Australia	1993	124.2	97.2	36.0	10.3	10.0	433.1
Canada	1993	129.3	88.5	28.0	11.1	11.4	442.7
China (rural)	1994	111.9	26.5	110.2	13.8	25.8	698.7
China (urban)	1994	119.4	57.6	125.0	10.1	5.9	594.7
France	1993	133.9	35.3	28.8	13.7	16.2	439.9
Greece	1994	109.1	55.4	69.5	18.4	2.6	449.0
Hong Kong	1994	125.9	40.0	39.8	4.5	10.3	392.9
Indonesia	. .	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Italy	1992	134.8	55.3	49.2	14.2	5.7	459.1
Japan	1994	106.2	21.7	44.5	8.9	12.2	364.0
Korea (Republic of)	1992	117.4	13.5	91.1	29.7	7.6	570.6
Malaysia	. .	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
New Zealand	1993	142.2	119.7	44.0	16.8	11.7	509.9
Papua New Guinea	. .	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	1993	128.7	101.5	59.4	9.2	9.3	517.0
Sweden	1993	108.4	102.3	37.7	5.9	12.1	435.4
UK	1993	141.7	126.2	45.5	6.0	6.4	517.2
USA	1992	132.2	100.3	28.0	14.6	10.2	519.6
Viet Nam	. .	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

(a) Standardised death rates are the overall death rates per 100,000 population that would have prevailed in a standard population if it had experienced at each age the death rates of the population being studied. The standard population used in this table is the World Health Organisation world standard population.

Standardised death rates for Australia presented in the Health chapter of this publication or elsewhere in ABS publications are not comparable due to the use of a different standard population and different reference periods.

(b) It is generally acknowledged that suicides are under-reported as a cause of death. The degree of under-reporting varies from country to country, partly for social and cultural reasons, but also because of differences in legal requirements and administrative procedures in arriving at a verdict of suicide.

Source: World Health Organisation *World Health Statistics Annual* 1995.



Country	Reference year	Health expenditure as % of GDP	Health expenditure per capita at PPP(a)	Reference year	Doctors per 1,000 population	Reference year	Acute hospital beds per 1 000 population
		%	\$US '000		no.		no.
Australia	1994	8.5	1.6	1991	2.2	1993	4.3
Canada	1994	9.8	2.0	1994	2.2	1992	3.8
China	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
France	1994	9.7	1.9	1994	2.8	1994	4.7
Greece	1994	5.2	0.6	1994	4.0	1992	3.9
Hong Kong	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Indonesia	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Italy	1994	8.3	1.6	1992	1.7	1992	5.5
Japan	1994	6.9	1.5	1994	1.8	..	n.a.
Korea (Republic of)	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Malaysia	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
New Zealand	1994	7.5	1.2	1994	2.1	1991	7.2
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Sweden	1994	7.7	1.3	1994	3.0	1994	3.2
UK	1994	6.9	1.2	1993	1.5	1994	2.1
USA	1994	14.3	3.5	1993	2.5	1992	3.5
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.

(a) PPP (purchasing power parities) are the rates of currency conversion which eliminate the differences in price levels between countries.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development *OECD Health Data 96 CD ROM*.



Labour

Country	Reference year	Economically active population(a)	Participation rate of persons aged 15 and over(a)		
			Total	Men	Women(b)
		'000	%	%	%
Australia	1995	9 001.2	63.7	74.0	53.8
Canada	1995	14 927.5	64.8	72.5	57.4
China	. .	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
France	1995	26 089.3	55.0	62.6	47.9
Greece	1995	4 244.5	49.7	64.7	36.1
Hong Kong	1995	3 068.1	62.8	77.3	48.0
Indonesia	1994	83 688.8	66.2	82.0	50.9
Italy	1994	22 680.0	47.4	62.1	33.7
Japan	1995	66 670.0	63.4	77.6	50.0
Korea (Republic of)	1995	20 798.0	62.0	76.5	48.3
Malaysia	1995	7 869.6	39.2	n.a.	n.a.
New Zealand	1995	1 742.2	64.8	74.2	55.8
Papua New Guinea	. .	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	1995	1 748.2	64.3	78.4	50.0
Sweden	1995	4 319.0	78.2	80.3	76.1
UK	1993	28 271.0	62.4	72.7	52.8
USA	1995	132 304.0	66.6	75.0	58.9
Viet Nam	. .	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

(a) For most countries data are presented for the economically active population aged 15 and over. However, the age range varies for some countries: Malaysia — 15–64; Sweden — 16–64; UK, USA — 16 and over. Definitions also vary in terms of the inclusion or exclusion of certain other segments of the population such as the armed forces.

(b) Participation rates for women are frequently not comparable internationally since, in many countries, relatively large numbers of women assist on farms or in other family enterprises without pay. There are differences between countries in the criteria used to count economically active workers.

Source: International Labour Office *Year Book of Labour Statistics*.



Employment and unemployment (a)

Country	Reference year	Employment '000	Reference year	Unemployment '000	Unemployment rate %
Australia	1995	8 234.9	1995	766.3	8.5
Canada	1995	13 506.0	1995	1 422.0	9.5
China(b)	1994	614 690.0	1994	4 764.0	2.8
France	1995	22 296.0	1995	2 950.0	11.6
Greece	1995	3 823.8	1995	424.7	10.0
Hong Kong	1995	2 970.5	1995	97.7	3.2
Indonesia	1992	78 104.1	1992	2 199.0	n.a.
Italy	1994	20 002.0	1994	2 584.0	11.1
Japan	1995	64 570.0	1995	2 100.0	3.2
Korea (Republic of)	1995	20 377.0	1995	419.0	2.0
Malaysia	1995	7 645.0	1995	224.6	2.8
New Zealand	1995	1 632.6	1995	109.5	6.3
Papua New Guinea	. .	n.a.	. .	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	1995	1 700.9	1995	47.3	2.7
Sweden	1995	3 986.0	1995	333.0	7.7
UK	1995	25 537.0	1995	2 384.0	8.5
USA	1995	124 900.0	1995	7 404.0	5.6
Viet Nam	. .	n.a.	. .	n.a.	n.a.

(a) For most countries the employed and unemployed populations are aged 15 and over. However, the age range varies for some countries: China — all ages; Greece and Italy — 14 and over; Indonesia — 10 and over; Malaysia — 15–64 (employed only); Sweden — 16–64; UK and USA — 16 and over. Definitions also vary in terms of the inclusion or exclusion of certain other segments of the population such as the armed forces.

(b) Employment relates to total economy; unemployment relates to urban areas only.

Source: International Labour Office Year Book of Labour Statistics.

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2410200001970

ISSN 1321-1781

Recommended retail price \$36.00
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Produced by the
Australian Bureau of Statistics